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Constructing Rural Sociology*

By Lowry Nelson†

ABSTRACT

The special recognition of the 41 years of educational service to North Dakota of Dr. John M. Gillette, holds special interest for rural sociologists because of the fact that Dr. Gillette wrote the first textbook in the field. The rise of interest in rural social problems after 1900 was due in large measure to the maladjustments in rural life growing out of (1) the rapidity of settlement on the scattered farmstead pattern, (2) the heterogeneous ethnic composition of the population, (3) the wasteful exploitation of natural resources and the rise of the "conservation movement" of which the emphasis on human resources may be considered a phase. The rural life "evangelists," (Bailey, Butterfield and others), paved the way for the teachers (textbook writers) and the scientific approach to the study of rural life.

RESUMEN

El reconocimiento especial de los 41 años de servicio educativo del Dr. John M. Gillette en el estado de North Dakota, tiene interés especial para los sociólogos rurales puesto que fué el doctor Gillette quien escribió el primer libro de texto sobre la sociología rural. El aumento del interés en los problemas sociales rurales desde 1900 se debió en gran parte a los desajustes en la vida rural causados por (1) la rapidez en el establecimiento de propiedades rurales aisladas, (2) la composición étnica heterogénea de la población, (3) la explotación destructiva de los recursos naturales y el desarrollo del "movimiento de conservación," una fase del cual es el énfasis en los recursos humanos. Los "evangelistas" de la vida rural (Bailey, Butterfield, y otros), prepararon el camino para los autores de textos y para el estudio científico de la vida rural.

The rise and development of rural sociology in the United States parallels in time—almost exactly—the professional career of Professor John M. Gillette whom we are happy to honor today. Indeed, as is well known to this audience and to the world, he has played a most important role in the development of that discipline.

That rural sociology developed in the United States rather than in the

older countries of Europe is an interesting fact of history. It is a fact which can probably be best explained by the extraordinary conditions surrounding the settlement and exploitation of the new continent. The stresses and strains in the social structure coincident with the exigencies of pioneering brought to general notice the fact that all was not well in rural society.

In the last half of the nineteenth century America had behaved very much like a huge giant on a rampage. Possessed of mythical power, this giant also had in him a touch of whimsy, of romance, and a zest for adventure which comes only from an active imagination. This giant was a

* This address was given at the Honors Day Convocation at the University of North Dakota, April 25, 1944, when special honors were paid Dr. John M. Gillette, pioneer sociologist, on his having completed 41 years of teaching in North Dakota. Since Dr. Gillette is the author of the first textbook in rural sociology, the occasion had special historical interest for workers in this field.

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sort of combination of Paul Bunyon and Peer Gynt.

With this giant forty years was as a day with us. Rousing himself from slumber after the Civil War, he stretched his giant limbs, pulled himself up to his full height, and began a day of work, play and adventure. He built rafts and floated down the great rivers; he clawed coal and iron from the earth, fired them together in furnaces, and spun from the metal great long ribbons of steel. He amused his fancy by constructing mechanical gadgets of innumerable kinds and unparalleled ingenuity. He created railroads and factories; and the great cities. He set his gaze to the unknown country to the west, and with uncontrollable zest he ventured into the wilderness, hunting the wild game of forest and plain, seeking and finding gold in the ancient stream beds of western rivers, tracking down and trapping animals, whose armfuls of furry pelts he strewed about the cities of the world.

Of particular importance to us who dwell on the plains, he strode energetically up and down the prairie, lifting and turning the vast expanse of sod, sowing to wheat and corn and oats and barley the brown virgin acres each springtime, and each autumn, as regularly shearing the earth of its golden fleece.

Then, as if in playful diversion, he took his giant scythe and mowed down the forests as if they were weeds before the sickle. Great rains descended upon the land and the soil of the primeval forest was washed

into the rivers. Floods spread over the valleys. As the skies cleared and the earth dried up once more, the winds swept over the prairies gathering into their fierce bosoms the soil from the up-turned sod. It was the evening of the first day and the tired giant rested.

As he awoke from a brief slumber, his limbs ached from the aftermath of the day of vigorous out-pouring of ruthless energy, the wasteful ram-paging through and up and down the land. His eyes were red as from a drunken carousal. He was as a man who had been beside himself, working as one works under stress of fierce desperation, tearing and turning, cutting and slashing, drunk with the romance of adventure, numb to pain and deaf to the entreaties of a body forced beyond endurance. Thus did the giant face the morning of the second day; repentant; contemplative; filled with regret and good resolutions.

The purpose of this "fairy story" is to emphasize the point that America during this period was preparing unknowingly for some kind of reaction. It was the America of the pioneers pushing the frontier westward day by day, rod by rod; the day of the immigrants pouring over this inviting land, their pent-up enthusiasms born of centuries of denial. Finding again, many of them, only more frustration and defeat, but enough of them riding out the storms to assure the triumph over the wilderness, and make human habitation certain for future generations. It was

the America of adventure and exploitation; the day of the timber barons, the railroad barons, the land speculators. The day when only the hardy, the cunning, and the powerful could survive and prosper. It was no time or place for the effete, the naive, the weak or the refined. It was a lusty generation, always in motion, always strong; often thoughtless and sometimes unscrupulous; a disorderly vanguard of the day of law and order.

Any excess, whether in the individual or the group, produces a reaction. It was inevitable that there would come a reaction to the excesses of the latter part of the nineteenth century. It set in immediately after 1900.

Thinking Americans began to take thought of the future. There was talk about the responsibility of one generation to those which follow. Conservation became a word to conjure with. Political parties wrote statements into their platforms regarding it. There was more than talk; there was action. The National Forests and the Forest Service were created in 1905. In 1902 the Reclamation Act was passed, designed to conserve the water of the arid regions for use in agriculture.

This was a period of general reform. Lincoln Steffens was "muck-raking" the American cities. Under the aggressive leadership of President Theodore Roosevelt, the great trusts which had developed during the previous half century were being "busted." In the rural areas, two new farmer movements had their begin-

ning in 1902, the Farmers Union and the Society of Equity.

By the end of the 19th century the most desirable land of the continent was appropriated and largely settled. The task had been accomplished in a comparatively short period of time. As I have already implied it was a hurried process. While the tempo of land settlement might have been slower than that of a gold rush, the difference in speed was not great. The rapidity of settlement resulted in some time lag between the actual occupancy of the land and the establishment of community institutions. Moreover, the participants in the settlement of America came from widely divergent origins. The existence side by side of many tongues and creeds was not conducive to the rapid creation of social organization. Moreover, the practice of establishing residences out on the individual farms rather than in villages, as had been customary in Europe and to a certain extent in New England, added a further impediment in the way of developing adequate social machinery. Isolated villages would have been a serious disadvantage; but isolated individuals and families were doubly handicapped. With these conditions in mind it is not difficult to account for the fact that rural sociology developed in the United States before it did in Europe.

But the conditions themselves are not creative forces, they simply provide the medium in which such forces can operate. The creative social forces are in men; particularly in

men who pioneer new ways and new thinking. And like all other scientific disciplines, rural sociology had its pioneers. Among the earlier of these was Dean Liberty Hyde Bailey of Cornell University, who was born in 1853 and so far as I know is still living. Dean Bailey was trained in the field of horticulture, and was for many years our most eminent man in that field. His contributions to its literature were numerous and extensive. But reference to a list of his publications—numbering incidentally some 35 titles of published volumes alone—indicates that around 1908 he began to think and write about the social aspects of agriculture. In that year he was appointed chairman of the American Country Life Commission by President Theodore Roosevelt. Also in that year (1908) appeared a volume by him entitled, *The State and the Farmer*. Three years later came *The Country Life Movement*, and in 1915 he published *The Holy Earth*.

Another man, who is usually mentioned almost in the same breath with Bailey when the origins of rural sociology are considered, was Kenyon L. Butterfield. He and Bailey were undoubtedly the two most important "evangelists" of the country life movement. But Butterfield also made a contribution to the development of rural sociology as a college discipline. As far as I can determine, he was the first man to bear the title "instructor in rural sociology," a position to which he was appointed in 1902 at the University of Michigan.

Just what the content of his courses was in the subject, I do not know, but at least the first textbook on the subject was yet to appear. His own book, *Chapters in Rural Progress*, did not appear until 1908. To a much greater extent than Bailey, he devoted considerable thought to the specific content of the new discipline, and in 1912 published his specifications in a journal article, entitled *Rural Sociology as a College Discipline*. During his career as president of three agricultural colleges, as president for nine successive terms of the American Country Life Association after its founding in 1919, and being an energetic and capable publicist, he kept the discussion of country life problems before the public as perhaps no other individual has been able to do, with the possible exception of Bailey.

It is interesting to note in passing that the initial development of rural sociology came not from men trained in the social sciences, but largely in agricultural technology. It remained, however, for the only slightly older discipline of general sociology, along with economics, to provide the trained personnel who were subsequently to carry out the initial research projects, the results of which gave to it a measure of scientific validity.

Among the earliest of the empirical searchers after rural sociological truth were three graduate students of Professor Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia University. I have as yet been unable to locate anyone who

knows just what Professor Giddings knew or thought about rural life in this country, or what his attitudes were towards it. We do know that he was determined to put sociology on a scientific basis and that he encouraged his students to go out and study society "in the field" as it were, and not be content to generalize about it from an armchair. At any rate, three of his students wrote dissertations based upon studies of rural communities which represent pioneer efforts. The first one was entitled *An American Town*, published in 1906; the author James Mickel Williams. The second monograph was by Warren H. Wilson, entitled *Quaker Hill*, and published in 1908; while the third was *A Hoosier Village*, by Newell L. Sims, published in 1912. It is highly probable that the first monograph by Williams was the stimulation for the other two. All three men have exercised considerable influence upon the development of rural sociology in this country. Among the three Sims especially has been influential because of the wide use of his basic text in the field.

While these three monographs are historically important, the scientific study of rural society received its greatest impetus from the classic research project of Charles J. Galpin of Wisconsin published in 1915. It provided a simple and reliable method by which at least the external, structural features of the rural community could be delineated. This little study not only influenced the research in rural sociology for the

succeeding generation, but also became a starting point for the numerous urban ecological studies, which have flourished during the past quarter century. Galpin himself was trained in the social sciences and, after serving as principal of Union Academy in New York, came to the University of Wisconsin where for 6 years he served as a student pastor, at the same time carrying on graduate work at the University in agricultural economics and sociology. His great opportunity to serve the cause of his chosen field came in 1919 when he was made director of the newly-created Division of Farm Population and Rural Life Studies in the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture. In this position he was able to stimulate research through small grants-in-aid to a few enterprising men throughout the country who were ready and anxious to do rural social research, but who lacked funds with which to do it. The comparatively large number of published studies on rural life in the early 1920's are directly traceable to his influence.

We have to this point considered two of the important phases in the evolution of rural sociology in the United States. The first I have called the evangelistic or, perhaps more suitably, the promotional stage; the second, the positivist stage, or the period when the techniques for making scientific studies of rural society and the will to use them were coming into being.

There was another important service which had to be performed if the field was to become firmly established and expand to fill the purpose which the early promoters had envisioned for it. There had to be a systematic method of conveying the subject matter to the men and women in the colleges. Until 1913 there was no textbook to which an interested teacher might turn for help should he wish to offer a course in the subject. But in that year appeared *Constructive Rural Sociology*. I think Professor Gillette himself was surprised at the wide reception of this pioneer work. But the field was ready and waiting for it. The evangelists had done well their work.

It was a courageous undertaking to write a textbook at that early date. The research on which to base a truly scientific work had yet to be done—indeed it has *yet* to be done. The writer had to take what was available of the works of others, add to it the results of his own study and observation, and to present it all in some kind of system. This latter was undoubtedly the most important contribution which any early text could make. Any pioneer has to do what he can do, with the materials at hand and the techniques he knows. Because, by definition, a pioneer is one who has no precedent to follow. The pioneer cuts his own rude trail through the wilderness, where none existed before. It may turn out that he should have chosen another location or direction; but that is known only after he has made the first path.

Others will, on the basis of his experience, be able to make short-cuts, to choose better grades, and they can widen the trail and smooth it from bumps. But all this is possible only because the first man made the initial path. To him who thinks pioneering is easy; let him get out and try it. Professor Gillette realizes as fully as anyone the inadequacies of his pioneer effort as measured by the standards of today. He has demonstrated this awareness in the publication later of his *Rural Sociology*, several times revised, one of the more widely used textbooks in the field. His first book had no competitors; his latest has at least 20.

Nevertheless, *Constructive Rural Sociology* stands as one of three publications which constitute land-marks along the trail of those pioneers who were most responsible for *constructing* rural sociology in America. It may stand as the symbol of those several important men—Brunner, Hawthorn, Hays, Hoffer, Holmes, Galpin, Kolb, Landis, Sanderson, Sims, Smith, Sorokin, Taylor, Vogt, and Zimmerman, and others, who in addition to Gillette have helped to systematize the body of knowledge we call rural sociology.

Another landmark is the publication by Galpin, *The Social Anatomy of an Agricultural Community*, in 1915, which may well symbolize the contributions of hundreds of men and women who have carried out hundreds of research studies of rural society. In the past quarter of a century, they have produced a prodigious

volume of data. Finally, we have as the remaining milestone, the *Report of the Country Life Commission* in 1908 which symbolizes the work of thousands of people who, while not directly engaged in research or in teaching the subject of rural sociology, are nevertheless concerned about the social welfare of people who live on the land. Some of them are ministers (a great many in fact); some are business men; some are professional teachers in other fields than social science; some are members or leaders in farm organizations; some are country editors. All of these, and many other groups not mentioned, are part of what we usually think of as representing the "country life movement." They not only provided the original impulse which grew into a great wave of interest in scientific rural sociology, but they constitute the public support for its continued functioning.

I have spoken of these three publications and the men who created them as landmarks or milestones in the development of a scientific discipline, and as symbolic of three different types of service which have been given in the past. The publications are a part of historical record as well as the services of those who produced them. But the types of service themselves represent continuing necessities. And this statement is true for any discipline. There must be those who carry on the research activities, for science must grow or

die. There likewise must be those who can take the subject matter of a field of knowledge, give to it a conceptual framework and synthesize it into a form which will facilitate its transmission to those outside the guild. And finally there will always be need of those understanding and sympathetic persons outside the discipline itself, who will and can provide a favorable public attitude in which it can grow.

And with the end of the second 40-year day in the life of our giant, we find a record of a somewhat more sober achievement—a kind of settling-down period—with fewer excesses of the kind which characterized the day before. The hard tasks of pioneering over, there has been leisure to cultivate the arts, promote the sciences, to review and restate the spiritual values. There has come in large measure the successful conquest of the loneliness of the frontier. Much of the burden of the day's work and the hardships of isolation have been mitigated.

The groundwork of a science of society has been laid. But the superstructure has yet to be raised. Man is not yet able to control his destiny. It is not known whether he can master the technologies he himself has created, or whether the tools he made for constructive use may finally bring about his own downfall. Truly, other days of gigantic effort of brain, hand and spirit face our collective giant.

Further Validation of the Wert-Myster Farming Attitude Scale

By Alonzo M. Myster†

ABSTRACT

This paper presents some evidence relative to the validity of the Wert-Myster Farming Attitude scale for a group of young women majoring in home economics at Virginia State College. The whole scale is divided into two sub-scales, one measuring attitude toward farming as a vocation and the other attitude toward farming as a way of life. Reliability has been determined by the split-halves method and validity has been inferred from the fact that the scale differentiates between persons of known different farming attitude. Evidence is presented that the whole scale, the vocational items and the life items are of satisfactory validity and reliability. Finally it is shown that attitude toward farming as a vocation and attitude toward farming as a way of life are related, but it is indefensible to interpret the two as strictly identical behaviors.

RESUMEN

Este artículo presenta alguna evidencia relativa a la validez de la Escala Wert-Myster de Actitudes hacia la Agricultura en el caso de un grupo de mujeres jóvenes que estudian economía doméstica en el Colegio del Estado de Virginia. La escala está dividida en dos sub-escalas, una de las cuales mide las actitudes tocante a la agricultura como carrer y la otra las actitudes hacia la agricultura como modo de vivir. La confiabilidad ha sido determinada por el método de división de la escala en dos mitades al azar y la validez se deduce del hecho de que la escala muestra diferencias entre personas cuyas actitudes tocante a la agricultura ya se sabe que son diferentes. El artículo presenta evidencia de que la escala en general, así como la parte referente a la agricultura como carrera y la referente a la agricultura como modo de vivir, son de validez y confiabilidad satisfactorias. Finalmente, se demuestra que las actitudes hacia la agricultura como carrera y las actitudes hacia la agricultura como modo de vivir están relacionadas, pero es insostenible el interpretar ambas como estrictamente idénticas.

The Wert-Myster Farming Attitude Scale was constructed and validated in connection with Project 704 of the Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station. The whole scale which measures attitude toward farming in general was divided into two sub-scales: one measuring attitude toward farming as a vocation and the other attitude toward farming as a way of life. Its validation was limited to pupils and students of agriculture. However, the importance of favor-

able farming attitude in positions held by many home economics graduates suggested that if the scale should be found reliable and valid for home economics students an additional source of information for their guidance and placement will be available.

The scale was, therefore, administered to 36 Junior home economics students enrolled in the first course in rural sociology at Virginia State College. Performances on the scale were utilized in validating the scale and for determining the relationship

† Virginia State College.

between attitude toward farming as a vocation and attitude toward farming as a way of life. The findings and interpretations of these investigations are presented in this report.

Reliability

The reliability coefficients, r_1 , of the whole scale, the vocational scale and the life scale were obtained by first computing r , the coefficient of correlation between the odd and even items, and then stepping up r by means of the Spearman-Brown formula. Values of r and r_1 are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. VALUES OF r AND r_1 FOR THE WHOLE, VOCATIONAL AND LIFE SCALES

Scale	r	r_1
Whole	.804	.891
Vocational	.671	.803
Life	.667	.800

The reliability coefficients will become more meaningful and have greater application if the 36 students for whom they were computed are considered a representative sample of an infinite population, or of a finite population such that the infinite population theory may be applied with negligible error. Obviously this necessitates tests of significance of the reliability coefficients.

For purposes of a test of significance two defensible procedures are available. First, Student's t -test may be used to determine whether the correlation coefficients are significantly greater than zero. Second, the Z -function may be used to determine whether the correlation coefficients are significantly less, or greater, than

any arbitrary value which a correlation coefficient may have.

Information yielded by the t -test is not sufficient for answering practical questions associated with attitude measurement. Stated otherwise, the question is not whether r_1 is greater than zero, but it is whether r_1 is greater than some postulated least allowable value. Hence, it is here more defensible to base the tests of significance upon the Z -function and its standard error.

The Z used in the test of significance must be based upon r rather than r_1 . This follows from the fact that the distribution of Z derived from an estimated correlation coefficient, such as is obtained when r is substituted in the Spearman-Brown formula, is not known.

Relating the theory of the significance of reliability coefficients to the data of Table I, the question is not whether $r = .804$, $r = .671$ and $r = .667$ for the whole, vocational and life scales, respectively, are significantly greater than zero. Rather, it is important to inquire whether in the population represented by the sample of 36 young women the odd-even correlation coefficient, r_3 , would yield r_4 large enough to satisfy some postulated criterion.

If it is postulated that the least allowable reliability coefficient, r_4 , shall be not less than .600 for the vocational and life scales and .700 for the whole scale, values necessary for r_3 may be obtained from

$$r_4 = \frac{2 r_3}{1 + r_3}$$

Substituting $r_4 = .600$ for the vocational and life scales and $r_4 = .700$ for the whole scale, the values shown in Table II were obtained for r_3 .

TABLE II. VALUES OF r_3 CORRESPONDING TO POSTULATED VALUES OF r_4

Scale	Postulated Value of r_4	Value of r_3
Whole	.700	.538
Vocational	.600	.429
Life	.600	.429

Values of Z and Z_3 necessary for evaluating the null hypothesis that the true difference between r and r_3 is zero are shown in Table III. Evaluation of this null hypothesis leads to probability statements concerning whether r_3 , the theoretical odd-even correlation coefficient necessary to satisfy the postulated reliability, is, in the population, less than the least allowable reliability criteria for the whole, vocational and life scales.

TABLE III. VALUES OF Z AND Z_3

Scale	Z	Z_3
Whole	1.10982	0.60134
Vocational	0.81256	0.45866
Life	0.80533	0.45866

Recalling that Z_3 , and r_3 upon which it is based, are theoretical population values it is apparent that the standard error of Z is the appropriate value for the denominator of the normal deviate equivalent used in testing the significance of the difference between Z and Z_3 . In view of the fact that the standard error of Z is equal to the reciprocal of the square root of three less than the number of cases upon which r cor-

responding to Z is based, the normal deviate, X , may be obtained from

$$X = (Z - Z_3) (N - 3)^{1/2}$$

Substituting in this equation, values of X corresponding to $Z - Z_3$ for the whole, vocational and life scales were found. Together with the probability, P , of obtaining differences greater than those noted between Z and Z_3 , if in the population the true difference is zero, values of X are shown in Table IV.

Inspection of Table IV reveals that for the whole test the difference between Z and Z_3 is significant at less than the one per cent level. For the

TABLE IV. VALUES OF X AND P

Scale	X	P
Whole	2.92	.0011
Vocational	2.03	.0212
Life	1.99	.0233

vocational and life scales the differences are significant at approximately the two per cent level. Since in no case may differences between Z and Z_3 as great as or greater than those observed be obtained fortuitously as many as three times in 100, it is defensible to claim that in the population of which the 36 home economics students are representative the reliability of the whole, vocational and life scales will satisfy the postulated criteria of least allowable reliability.

Validity

No outside criterion with which performances on the scale could be correlated to obtain a coefficient of validity was readily available. Hence,

It was necessary to attack the problem in another manner. Logically, if it can be shown that the scales differentiate between the present group and other groups for whom it is reasonable to assume differences in farming attitude, it seems fair to claim that the scales have some validity for the group under investigation.

Apparently the farming attitude of home economics and agricultural students will differ significantly on an average. In order to evaluate this hypothesis the average scores of the group under investigation were compared with the average scores of agricultural students enrolled at Virginia State College and Iowa State College. The mean scores, standard deviations of the scores and the number of cases are shown in Table V for the vocational, life and whole scales.

The differences between the mean attitude scores of the Virginia State College home economics students and the students of agriculture at Virginia State College and Iowa State College, together with the degrees of freedom for the tests of significance

and t-ratios corresponding to these differences, are shown in Table VI.

The estimates of the population variance used in computing the standard errors of the differences were obtained by computing an average of the two sums of squares entering into each comparison, weighted by the respective degrees of freedom in each group. The table of t was entered with the combined degrees of freedom (shown in Table VI) involved in the tests of significance. The two asterisks after the t -ratios indicate significance at the one per cent level. Abandonment of the hypothesis of no differences between the mean scores of the home economics students on the one hand and the two groups of agricultural students, on the other, is, therefore, justified. This demonstrates the power of the scales to differentiate between groups of known different farming attitude. And in the absence of a more satisfactory criterion of validity, it appears defensible to interpret these tests of significance as being indicative of the validity of the scales for the home economics students.

TABLE V. MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND NUMBER OF CASES*

Group	Whole Scale		Vocational Scale		Life Scale		N
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Va. State Home Econ.	149.8	18.5	68.3	9.8	81.4	10.7	36
Va. State Agric.	171.6	15.6	79.9	7.3	91.7	9.8	56
Iowa State Agric.	180.8	29.3	83.1	14.8	97.8	15.4	206

* Data for agricultural students taken from Doctor's Dissertation by author of this paper.

TABLE VI. DIFFERENCES IN MEAN ATTITUDE SCORES AND CORRESPONDING *t*-RATIOS

Scale and items	Groups Compared with Home Ec. Students	
	Va. State Agr.	Iowa State Agr.
Whole		
Difference	21.8	31.0
Degrees of freedom	90	240
<i>t</i> -ratio	6.06**	6.08**
Vocational		
Difference	10.3	16.4
Degrees of freedom	90	240
<i>t</i> -ratio	4.68**	6.07**
Life		
Difference	11.6	14.8
Degrees of freedom	90	240
<i>t</i> -ratio	6.44**	5.69**

Aspects of Farming Attitude

The fact that the vocational and life scales were shown to be reliable and valid suggests that attitude toward farming as a vocation and attitude toward farming as a way of life are two different types of behavior. In order to test this hypothesis the coefficient of correlation between performances on the two scales was computed and $r = .672$ was obtained.

Because $r = .672$ was based upon scores obtained by fallible instruments an estimate of the vocational-life correlation coefficient, r_1 , which would have been obtained if both scales had been perfectly reliable was computed from

$$r_1 = r (r_2 r_3)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

where

r_1 = the coefficient of correlation between the vocational and life scales corrected for attenuation.

r = the observed vocational-life correlation coefficient.

r_2 and r_3 = the reliability coefficients of the vocational and life scales, respectively.

The coefficient of correlation corrected for attenuation was found to be .839.

Entering Fisher's table of values of r significantly greater than zero, $r = .672$ (the uncorrected correlation coefficient) was found to be significant at less than the one per cent level. Hence, in the population, students favorable toward farming as a vocation tend also to be favorable toward farming as a way of life and vice versa. However, it is not defensible to assume that both scales measure strictly identical behaviors. If this were true the percentile of the mean on the vocational scale would be identical to the percentile of the mean on the life scale. The table of norms for the vocational¹ and life²

¹ Alonzo M. Myser. *Construction and Validation of a Scale for the Measurement of Attitude Toward Farming*. Doctor's Dissertation. Ames, Iowa. Iowa State College Library. 1943. p. 100.

² *Ibid.*, p. 101.

scales showed that the mean scores of the vocational and life scales fell at the forty-eighth and thirty-ninth percentiles, respectively. Obviously, the two behaviors are not strictly identical.

Summary

This paper has presented some evidence relative to the reliability and validity of the Wert-Myster Farming Attitude Scale for a group of young women majoring in home economics at Virginia State College. It has been

shown that the whole, vocational and life scales are of satisfactory reliability and validity for this group. Finally, evidence that students who are favorable toward farming as a vocation are also favorable toward farming as a way of life, and vice versa, is presented. In this connection the indefensibility of interpreting attitude toward farming as a vocation and attitude toward farming as a way of life as identical behaviors was demonstrated.

ATTITUDE TOWARD FARMING

ALONZO M. MYSTER — JAMES E. WERT

Name: Age: Residence: (encircle one) Town Farm

School: Class: (encircle one) Fr So Jr Sr

Do you intend to be a farmer? (encircle one) Yes No

What are your opinions of the following statements? Your answer is correct if it expresses your true opinion. This is not a test and you are not to be graded. DO NOT OMIT ANY ITEM. In each case encircle the letter or letters which represent your own ideas about each statement.

SA—strongly agree; A—agree; U—undecided; D—disagree; SD—strongly disagree

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Farming is a pleasant vocation. | SA A U D SD |
| 2. I can't say I'm wild about farming. | SA A U D SD |
| 3. Farm Work is drudgery. | SA A U D SD |
| 4. I would enjoy working with plants and animals. | SA A U D SD |
| 5. A farmer has more worries than do persons engaged in most other occupations. | SA A U D SD |
| 6. As a life's work, farming would be terrible. | SA A U D SD |
| 7. Work on the farm is really enjoyable. | SA A U D SD |
| 8. The disadvantages of farming outweigh its advantages. | SA A U D SD |
| 9. Farming requires less intelligence than most other occupations. | SA A U D SD |
| 10. The vocation of farming has its drawbacks, but I like it. | SA A U D SD |
| 11. Farming involves too many distasteful tasks. | SA A U D SD |
| 12. I have never wanted to be a farmer. | SA A U D SD |
| 13. Farming is fascinating work. | SA A U D SD |
| 14. Farming requires less education than most other vocations. | SA A U D SD |
| 15. I like farming well enough to make it my life's work. | SA A U D SD |
| 16. Farming is a monotonous vocation. | SA A U D SD |
| 17. I have always wanted to be a farmer. | SA A U D SD |
| 18. Living on a farm is just too much hard work. | SA A U D SD |
| 19. The advantages of farming far outweigh the disadvantages. | SA A U D SD |
| 20. Farming is uninteresting work. | SA A U D SD |
| 21. The average farmer enjoys farming more than I would. | SA A U D SD |

22. Everything considered, I could be happier farming than engaging in any other occupation.	SA	A	U	D	SD
23. Farming tends to isolate a person from the rest of the world.	SA	A	U	D	SD
24. Farming yields less satisfaction than most other occupations.	SA	A	U	D	SD
25. The farm is the best place for young people.	SA	A	U	D	SD
26. About all that can be said for farming is that it furnishes a means of existing.	SA	A	U	D	SD
27. I could be satisfied to spend my life on the farm.	SA	A	U	D	SD
28. Social well-being is impossible of attainment on the farm.	SA	A	U	D	SD
29. Farming would give me a great deal of pleasure.	SA	A	U	D	SD
30. I feel that I would be doing my children an injustice by living on a farm.	SA	A	U	D	SD
31. I dislike the farm with its many inconveniences.	SA	A	U	D	SD
32. Farming yields more satisfaction than most other vocations.	SA	A	U	D	SD
33. Farming offers insufficient opportunity for contacts with people.	SA	A	U	D	SD
34. I feel that farm families as a whole are an interesting class of people.	SA	A	U	D	SD
35. Farming has more social disadvantages than most other occupations.	SA	A	U	D	SD
36. Farming deadens a person's ambitions.	SA	A	U	D	SD
37. I like farming as a way of life.	SA	A	U	D	SD
38. On an average, the standard of living of farmers is below that of other persons in the United States.	SA	A	U	D	SD
39. The farm is wonderful place to live.	SA	A	U	D	SD
40. Farming tends to reduce one's social standing.	SA	A	U	D	SD
41. For me, life on a farm would be extremely dull.	SA	A	U	D	SD
42. The farmer enjoys many satisfactions which the average person never realizes.	SA	A	U	D	SD
43. I think I would have less fun living on a farm than in town.	SA	A	U	D	SD
44. Farming deprives one's children of an adequate education.	SA	A	U	D	SD
45. The independence of farm life appeals to me.	SA	A	U	D	SD

An Interpretation of Staff Opinions On Extension Leadership

By W. R. Gordon†

ABSTRACT

Increased demands upon the Extension Service have made more imperative the need that we explore every source of help that promises to enlarge the contribution that the volunteer leader makes to the program. What more fruitful possibility is there than the years of experience of the county workers? This statement on leadership is based upon a canvass of opinions of almost one hundred such workers. The summary of the interviews illustrates how varied is the function of leadership (1) from one division of extension work to another (agriculture, home economics and 4-H club work); (2) from one subject-matter line to another (vegetable gardening to agricultural marketing); (3) from one level of extension organization to another (neighborhood, community, county); (4) from one county situation to another; and finally (5) from one county worker to another. On the basis of these obser-

vations, the writer has formulated a list of 15 recommendations which, taken together, appeal to him as a comprehensive program for leader development.

RESUMEN

El aumento de la demanda por el Servicio de Extensión ha hecho más imperativa la necesidad de explorar todas las formas de ayuda que prometan aumentar la contribución del líder voluntario. Qué posibilidad puede ser más fructífera que la de los años de experiencia de los trabajadores locales? Este estudio del desarrollo de líderes se basa en una investigación de las opiniones de casi un centenar de tales trabajadores. El resumen de las entrevistas demuestra cómo varía la función del líder (1) de una división del trabajo de extensión a otra (agricultura, economía doméstica u organización de clubs 4-H; (2) de una materia a otra (la siembra de hortalizas o la venta de productos agrícolas); (3) de un nivel de la organización de extensión a otro (el vecindario, la comunidad o el condado); (4) de la situación de un condado a la de otro; y, finalmente, (5) de un trabajador local a otro. Sobre la base de estas observaciones, el autor ha formulado una lista de 15 recomendaciones que, tomadas en conjunto, le parece que contienen un programa comprensivo para el desarrollo de líderes.

Attention to leadership as it relates to Extension Work in agriculture and home economics is an old story. Wherever there is collective effort, there is leadership. Wherever there has been achievement in group enterprise, leadership has played a part. Thirty years of experience has taught Extension workers a good deal about its function and potentials.

And yet the indications are unmistakable that an extra-lively concern with the problem exists today wherever Extension people are at work. At least two reasons can be given: (1) Wartime demands on Extension (reaching more households) necessitate getting more non-professional leadership into the program. (2) Current developments make necessary modifying the extension program. Democratic procedure requires participation of a sufficient number of representative farm men and farm women so that the program will fit the needs.

† Extension Rural Sociologist of The Pennsylvania State College.

The Extension staff in the state here represented decided it needed to re-examine the whole problem of leadership in connection with its work. It was felt that the first step should be to review the collective experience of its members and to prepare an inventory of field-staff opinions on the subject. A committee at the college, consisting of state supervisors (agriculture, home economics and 4-H) and subject matter specialists, counselled by representative men and women county workers, prepared an interview-form of 51 items. Each item referred to one of the following aspects of the subject:

I. About the county worker. (Years of service, and interviewers' observations.)

II. Attention to community and neighborhood in the organization of the work in the county and the recognition of levels of leadership.

III. Characteristics of extension organization at the county level.

IV. The county workers' opinions on leadership, qualifications for lead-

ership, functions of leaders, assistance to be given leaders by county workers, the aid that the College can give to the fostering of leadership.

V. The agents' estimate of the year's experience with leadership and the relative effectiveness of the extension program.

VI. Recommendations made by the agents: "What can be done to increase the effectiveness of Extension leadership?"

Separate interviews were conducted with 94 county workers by members of the committee. Each interview lasted from one to four hours. The Extension sociologist summarized and analyzed the data and wrote a report to the committee. In the space available here it is not possible to give a summary of this interpretation. However, the summarizer did formulate a set of 15 recommendations based on his impressions gained from experience with this canvass of opinion.¹ Some of the writer's observations used to introduce his recommendations have to do with questions that are debatable and with circumstances that vary from place to place. Stated briefly they may convey the air of finality on sketchy analysis. They may appear to ignore logical qualifications that should be made in individual cases. Such is not the intention. They are stated as indicators

of the writer's reasons for making the recommendations.

Also the writer does not intend to give the impression that the recommendations constitute an adopted program in the state. In fact the recommendations have not as yet passed the study stage by the committee. Therefore the statement should be considered a monograph and one for which the writer takes all responsibility, at the same time acknowledging that the gathering of information and many helpful suggestions are the contribution of the whole committee.

Finally, because of limited space, many important aspects of the subject of leadership are not alluded to at all.

I. Who Does What with Regard to Extension Leadership?

Leadership's function anywhere is to get something done. In extension it is to get extension work done—that is, to *teach, encourage, and inspire* rural people to acquire *knowledge, attitudes and skills*. But the over-all responsibility for getting extension work done belongs to administration. Therefore, the task of getting things done in extension involves both administration and leadership. Are they both the same, or does one include the other?

Leadership also is an art and as such has a subject-matter of its own. In the past every branch of subject-matter has been drawn off from a more general and more inclusive division of the work. In fact, we can go back to the first years when infor-

¹ The recommendations do not define new techniques and methods. Something has been, and is being, done now with many of them, in many states. But taken together they do appear to the writer to constitute a systematic and comprehensive program with possibilities for continued exploration.

mation-giving and administration—what there was of it—were but slightly distinguished. Leadership as subject matter is one of the most recent additions to the extension program.

The term leadership suggests to some the activity of the non-professional person who volunteers to aid in some capacity in the county. Of course, leadership as the exercise of constructive influence over others is both professional and non-professional. Administrators, specialists and county workers all lead.

Extension work has a field of service that is limited: a program definitely defined; policies of long-standing, determined partly by its semi-public character and partly by administrative experience. Therefore, when steps are taken to further the development of leadership, something is being done which is related to extension policy and which affects the prestige and success of extension work with the people it serves. This perhaps explains the halting emergence of a phase of extension teaching devoted to the subject of leadership.

And yet administration and teaching are two distinct functions. The attitudes and purposes most appropriate to administration are not the attitudes and purposes most appropriate to teaching. The development of leadership is primarily a task of teaching, while the utilization of leadership is a function of administration. Therefore, it appears to the writer that the first and most important single step to be taken in

any program having to do with extension leadership is to settle upon some co-acting arrangement between administration and subject-matter personnel so that the county worker may have from the college assistance with this problem which is in every particular consistent with administrative requirements and with effective teaching of such facts and principles on leadership as are needed. It is necessary to go into the county with a practical and definite program with regard to which there is no indecision and uncertainty in the manner in which it is presented.

Recommendation No. 1. Formulate a detailed program of assistance to the county from the college and for a given time, specifying the kinds of help that will be given and designating *who* will do *what*.

II. Assistance to the County Worker

The county worker is the key to this whole problem. It is impossible to miss noting the difference from county to county in the extent to which the agent tends to organize the work around himself (or herself) or organize it around responsible resident people who cooperate with him. The reasons are several and they have to do with training, experience and temperament of the agent. But one fact stands out. If there is to be any significant change in a county with regard to leadership, it must be accomplished with and through the resident county workers. Therefore, the following are suggested for consideration:

Recommendation No. 2. As counties indicate their desire for the assistance, make available a clinical study of the situation in the county with reference to leadership. Administration and subject-matter representatives meet with the county staff only. Examine the extension program over a period of years and note the accomplishments in the light of organization methods. Study county conditions affecting the use of leadership and the possibilities in an increased use of leadership. Lay out a leader-development program for the year incorporating whatever new features appear to be needed and with which some progress can be made.

Recommendation No. 3. At the college designate someone whose responsibility it is to maintain a practicable plan for professional advancement. The purpose being to keep extension workers informed with regard to developments in Education, Economics, Psychology and Sociology as they relate to extension teaching. This may be accomplished by (1) a careful selection of topics to be discussed at district conferences of the staff and at the annual extension conference; (2) by providing the staff from time to time with references to helpful readings; (3) by distributing occasionally brief abstracts of writings on leadership.

Recommendation No. 4. Prepare and distribute from time to time a stimulus in the form of a "Leaders' Letter" containing observations on the work in the field; questions that

have been raised and corresponding answers; examples of techniques that would interest others.

III. Formulation of An Organization Scheme To Be Used As A Reference Standard

The immediate and common reaction to this sub-head No. III will be one of question. As is well known every state has its standard of county organization. What occasion is there then for such a recommendation?

Added responsibilities incident to the war emergency, the increase in the amount of work that the staff members are required to do, changes that have come about in the counties seem to dictate the need of a critical examination of the existing organization scheme in any county. For example, it was shown by this study how differently the women agents view the organization of extension on a territorial basis than do the men. Then again it was stressed that organization and use of leadership vary with the different extension activities or subject-matter lines. So, too, do they vary from community to community. Finally, it has become abundantly clear to students of the problem that the rural neighborhood has taken on a new significance in these times. With regard to no single topic was there greater variation from county to county than the conception of organization related to territory.

A second important item was the fact that the words "extension leader" do not mean the same thing to different staff members. In many in-

stances any one who had any extension responsibility whatsoever was labelled "leader." In few instances were there any breakdowns of leadership into levels of responsibility in the organization. In some cases neighborhood leaders were just a list of people in a township with little regard given to the location of their residence and the unit of the township or of the residents there for which they had some responsibility.

Finally, when in a county there is a total of three or four thousand farms and as many rural-nonfarm households and there is a list with from three to five hundred local "leaders," the situation is one which on the face of it would merit some careful study of the agents' methods today if only to acquire some useful hints to pass on to other agents.

Recommendation No. 5. Prepare a pattern scheme of organization for a county in which the aims are:

- (a) To illustrate coordination of the work in agriculture, home economics and 4-H clubs from the standpoint of organization for getting the job done and the participation of volunteer leadership.
- (b) To illustrate the use of the scheme with such varied subject-matter projects as gardening, clothing, specialized production (potatoes), organized units such as Dairy Herd Improvement Associations, for example.
- (c) To illustrate a procedure for

cultivating activity of local leaders in communities that have been unresponsive.

- (d) To illustrate effective organization in the more populous areas where agriculture is relatively less dominant as well as in the strictly rural counties.
- (e) To illustrate the inter-relationship of such leader responsibilities as neighborhood representative, community chairman, project leader, project demonstrator, officer in sponsored organization (D. H. I. A., for example), Executive Committee member, and to differentiate their duties and opportunities.

(NOTE: This recommendation may be misunderstood by some. It may appear to them to be an attempt at standardization. It is not. Instead of proposing it as a scheme for universal application it is offered frankly as a theoretical standard; a standard with which to study all existing organizations and a device for presenting the many possibilities in leadership.)

Recommendation No. 6. Prepare a nomenclature which *can be* recommended for general adoption in the state, which neither emphasizes unduly the label of "leader" nor fails to distinguish several different responsibilities in the organization. The one given here is simply illustrative and is not presented with any notion of its universal applicability.

- | | |
|--|---|
| (a) Neighborhood level
(Where there are several units
in the neighborhood) | —Extension Neighbor ² |
| (b) Community level | —Neighborhood Representative |
| (c) Subject matter
responsibilities | —Extension Chairman |
| (d) County level | —Practice demonstrator |
| | —Project leader |
| | —Executive committee member |
| | —Officer of cooperating organization
(D. H. I. A.) |
| (e) Administration | —County officers |

IV. Aids to the Executive Committee

Next to the agents, the executive committee is the key factor in the success of extension work in the county. Its major function has to do with the "How" of the program. In some instances executive committees give the impression that they serve merely to indorse the work of the agents. Where this is the case they fail to contribute their share to the leadership of the program.

The executive committee needs to do much studying of itself, of the program, and the methods of agents and specialists with reference to the needs of the county.

² Extension Neighbor seems particularly appropriate because the duties are those of a "helpful neighbor" rather than a "leader" and the label "extension" calls attention to the organization which the individual serves. In this connection it is the conviction of the writer that use of the word "leader" with rural people can be, and is in many cases, overdone. There is good reason to believe that many public spirited farm people do not covet the title, and that many of their neighbors react unfavorably to its being attached to them. We ought not lose the virtue in the informal and close personal regard of neighbor for neighbor which begets mutual helpfulness in the small community. Overworking the concept of leader and leadership can in the judgment of the writer leave an unfavorable social "precipitate."

Recommendation No. 7. Make available for executive committee meetings assistance from the college to do the following:

- (a) Executive committee to study itself with regard to geographic, subject-matter and organization representation of the county; type and frequency of meetings and attendance at meetings; size of the committee, method of selection and tenure of office; duties of the committee in general and division of labor among its members.
- (b) Executive committee to study the program with regard to its character for the past several years; its suitability gauged by evidences of participation and accomplishments; the practices followed in making the program each year; evidences that the program is helping to guide developments in agriculture and rural living in the right direction.
- (c) Executive committee to study the methods of the agents and specialists with regard to educational meetings, their type,

frequency and where held; literature used as to type, quantity and manner of distribution; the use of such equipment as picture projectors and exhibits; the use of radio, newspaper publicity, circular letters and effectiveness of the same; the use and location of demonstrations, meetings at demonstrations and tours; devices for sustaining interest in and enthusiasm for extension work.

V. Assistance to Non-Professional Leaders

No less a factor, but more difficult to aid because of the number of individuals and their distribution throughout the county, are the leaders in communities and neighborhoods as well as the demonstrators and project leaders. This part of the program appeals to the writer as being the most difficult of all. The reasons, however, are other than those specified immediately above.

It is a truism in education that the teacher can't teach unless the pupil is willing to learn. It is just as true that leadership in extension can't be taught unless there are people who want to know how to make a success of extension leadership. Take, for example, the development of any phase of extension teaching. Let us say dairying. The dairy program in any state is what it is in character and extent because people there wanted information with regard to dairying. To be sure there have been wise individual farmers who have

improvised new methods of their own. There have been innovators, demonstrators and promoters each encouraging and stimulating others by example. But all their influence was limited by the extent to which people felt the need of doing the things that they saw others doing to their advantage and profit. So when we devote ourselves to this matter of assisting lay people to be leaders in extension it is appropriate to raise the question with regard to it: "*Who wants to be a leader and why?*"

Consideration of this question comes even before the "How" of leadership. When, in a given county, leaders bring *their* problems of extension leadership to the agent and the specialist, then and then only will a program in this subject develop as have programs in other lines.

The character of most extension work is such that economic values are emphasized first. If a given practice is adopted one may count on certain rewards either in lowered costs or increased returns. The instances where this is not the case only serve to emphasize the extent to which the statement holds good generally. But in cultivating extension leadership the individual whom we try to influence must be appealed to on some other basis than what he or she may hope to get out of it in increased monetary returns.

This is not the place to go into a discourse on motivation. However, this thing leadership is a sterile prospect if in fostering it we fail to attach a proper importance to those

natural human desires of which the following are examples:

- (a) Desire to be recognized and esteemed.
- (b) Desire for such new experience as leadership affords.
- (c) Desire to serve unselfishly.
- (d) Desire to be "in" and "of" a successful enterprise.

It is on the basis of these and other motives properly recognized and stimulated that we may eventually have leaders coming to the county workers and the college specialists asking "What can I do so that more of my neighbors will want and apply the information on nutrition and health that the extension service has to give them?"

Recommendation No. 8. Conduct with the county staff and the executive committee a study conference on leadership.

- (a) Study critically the list of leaders; the interests and the territory they represent; their records of performance.
- (b) Discuss possibilities and prepare a list of things that will be done to inspire leaders and secure for them the recognition they deserve through the use of newspaper publicity, meetings, radio broadcasts, exhibit materials, and such other media as are deemed appropriate.
- (c) Illustrate with charts and examples the two major functions of extension, "information giving" and "operation of the program," and describe

the character of the leadership responsibilities in each.

- (d) Illustrate with lines of subject-matter and the standard plan of organization the opportunities for leaders to assist with the program.
- (e) Prepare a list of particulars which will name the things that leaders may be encouraged to do with regard to which they can exercise their own initiative, originality, and ingenuity.

Recommendation No. 9. Prepare for distribution to leaders a leaflet—with few pages—which will tell the story of extension work in a way that will make anyone proud to be connected with it. A possible title: "What Is the Extension Service?" The following might be treated:

- (a) The inspiration for the founding of extension work.
- (b) Personalities (few and very brief).
- (c) Significant stages in development.
- (d) Scope in nation and state.
- (e) Leadership in extension—incidents that are inspirational.
- (f) Extension in the county.
(This last may be printed separate and fastened into the leaflet together with such listing of leaders as may seem appropriate.)

Recommendation No. 10. Prepare for leaders a reference handbook (loose leaf) consisting of a cover and a series of 4-page leaflets, punched

for fastening in the cover. Information would include the following:

- (a) Directory of general information.
- (b) The Extension Leader.
- (c) Leadership—What It Is.
- (d) The Community and the Neighborhood.
- (e) People.
- (f) What the Leader Does.
- (g) How the Leader Does It.
- (h) Our County and Its Future.

From time to time leaders would be sent such information on responsibilities, subject-matter activities, and developments of the work as is deemed necessary.

Recommendation No. 11. Prepare at the college a set of suggestions for counties to use in planning for and conducting meetings to counsel with and instruct volunteer extension leaders. The suggestions would have to do with the following:

- (a) Territorial basis for the meetings.

County-wide, when and how.

District of the county, when and how.

Community, when and how.

- (b) To do what?

Acquaint new leaders with extension work.

with county staff and officers of county organizations.

with each other.

with program planning procedure.

with leader methods.

- (c) By means of
 - Discussion and study.
 - Illustrated lecture.
 - Method demonstration.

VI. Participation of the Subject-Matter Specialist

The specialist's function overlaps that of the non-professional leader. Moreover, with the obvious differences in leader assistance from one project to another, he (or she) should participate in interpreting the role of the local volunteer leader in a given project.

Recommendation No. 12. Hold a series of meetings with subject-matter specialists to consider the following:

- (a) The recommended plan for organization in the county acknowledging necessary variations from county to county and from project to project.
- (b) Agreement upon common denominators in leader assistance acceptable to all lines of work.
- (c) Defining possibilities for aiding the leadership program in the county with regard to the following working relationships and cooperation:

Specialist with Executive Committee.

Specialist with County Staff.

Specialist with Non-professional leader.

Recommendation No. 13. Solicit from the specialists responsible for each line of subject matter their

plans for assistance to leadership in the county. Seek to bring these plans into harmony with the general scheme and with the conditions in the counties. Consider a given plan then the accepted basis for assisting leaders with regard to that project.

VII. Sustained Guidance for Extension Leadership

Constructive development in extension leadership is a never-completed task. There must be some source of stimulation and some center of reference. For the program in

a given state this logically is at the college.

Recommendation No. 14. Establish a standing committee of the extension staff to consider at proper times the field organization of the work and extension methods and to make such recommendations as it sees fit.

Recommendation No. 15. Designate at the college some member of the central office staff, or a subject-matter specialist, or a combination of both to serve the extension staff as consultant on extension leadership.

Social Participation and Religious Affiliation In Rural Areas

By W. A. Anderson†

ABSTRACT

This study confirms the hypothesis that membership in a religious denomination is associated with participation in other organizations. Individuals belonging to rural churches are active in other kinds of organizations in greater proportions than those who are not church members.

When the factors of farm ownership and land classes are held constant, participation in the rural areas of New York seems greater among Protestants than Catholics, and denominationally the Congregationalists, Presbyterians and Friends seem to be slightly more active than the Baptists and Methodists.

RESUMEN

Este estudio confirma la hipótesis de que el ser miembro de una secta religiosa está relacionado con la participación en otras organizaciones. Los individuos que pertenecen a las iglesias rurales toman parte en otras clases de organizaciones en mayor proporción que los que no son miembros de una iglesia.

Cuando se mantienen constantes los factores de la tenencia de la tierra y de las clases de tierras, la participación en las regiones rurales del estado de Nueva York parece ser mayor entre los Protestantes que entre los Católicos, y de los primeros los Congregacionalistas, Presbiterianos y Cuáqueros parecen un poco más activos que los Bautistas o los Metodistas.

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In the work on the social participation of rural families at Cornell, the interrelationships between participation in formal organizations have been shown. It has been demonstrated conclusively that membership in specific formal organizations in rural areas leads to membership in other rural organizations. Individuals who are members of a specific organization belong to the other available organizations in larger proportions than do those who are not members.¹

In these studies the relationship of voluntary participation in the church to other organizations is also indicated. The chief generalization made is that participants in church activities also participate in other voluntary organizations in larger proportions than those who do not take part in church activities.

But the studies do not indicate what differences there are, if any, in social participation on the basis of different religious affiliations.² Do the participants in some religious denominations show greater activity in community organizations than others? For example, are Methodists more or less active in the organizational life of the community than

Presbyterian, Catholics or members of other denominations? This paper gives an answer to this question.

The answer is based on the social participation of 1,068 rural husbands and 1,100 rural wives from Cortland and Otsego counties, New York. The data, gathered in the summers of 1939 and 1940, include the memberships and participation of these family heads in rural churches by denomination, together with their participation in the other organizations of their communities. The Chapin Social Participation Score was computed for each husband and wife so that a general measure of the extent and intensity of the participation of each individual is available.³

When the Chapin participation scores are compared by denominational affiliations, several differences are noted both for the husbands and wives. First, the non-church members have the lowest participation scores. Seventy-eight per cent of the husbands and 88 per cent of the wives who belong to no church organizations have participation scores of less than 10 points. No denominational group has such low scores. (Table I).

Second, the Catholic husbands and wives rank next to the non-church members in low scores. In this group, 35 per cent of the husbands and 64 per cent of the wives have scores of less than 10 points. (Table I).

¹ Those interested in the computations of the Chapin Social Participation Score may find it explained in W. A. Anderson, *The Social Participation of Farm Families*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Rur. Soc. Mimeo Bul. No. 8, (March, 1943), p. 13 ff.

¹ W. A. Anderson, *The Membership of Farmers in New York Organizations*, Cornell Un. Ag. Exp. Sta. Bul. 695 (Apr., 1938), p. 22 ff.

W. A. Anderson and Hans Plambeck, *The Social Participation of Farm Families*, Cornell Un. Ag. Exp. Sta. Rur. Soc. Mimeo Bul. No. 8. Also Rur. Soc. Mimeo Bulletins 3, 4, and 7.

² Lowry Nelson of the Univ. of Minn. has dealt with this problem in an unpublished paper, using data from Minnesota communities.

TABLE I. THE PROPORTIONS OF 1068 HUSBANDS AND 1100 WIVES IN FARM FAMILIES BY THEIR CHAPIN SOCIAL PARTICIPATION SCORES AND DENOMINATIONAL AFFILIATIONS IN OTSEGO AND CORTLAND COUNTIES, NEW YORK, 1939 AND 1940

Denominational Affiliation	Number of Husbands	Husbands' Scores					Number of Wives	Wives' Scores				
		0	1-9	10-19	20+	Total		0	1-9	10-19	20+	Total
Catholic	80	0	35	41	24	100	86	0	64	26	10	100
Congregational	33	0	12	27	61	100	34	0	24	24	52	100
Baptist	114	0	20	31	49	100	128	0	29	31	40	100
Methodist	260	0	20	37	43	100	327	0	33	32	35	100
Presbyterian	55	0	11	31	58	100	68	0	21	22	57	100
Friends	15	0	7	33	60	100	12	0	8	25	67	100
Non-member	511	40	38	17	5	100	445	69	19	10	2	100
Total	1068	19	28	26	26	100	1100	28	28	21	23	100

Third, of the Protestant denominations, the Methodists and Baptists score lower, on the average, than the Friends (Quakers), Presbyterians, and Congregationalists. The number of Friends and Congregationalists included in the sample is small but the size of these denominations is small in the counties so that relative to their total population, the sample probably includes as large proportions as are included from the other denominations.

Fourth, each of the Protestant denominations score, higher in participation than the Catholics. Only 24 per cent of the Catholic husbands and 10 per cent of the Catholic wives have participation scores of 20 or more, whereas the lowest proportion of Protestant husbands with scores of 20 or more is that of the Methodist with 43 per cent, and of the Protestant wives with similar scores, it is also the Methodists with 35 per cent.

The distribution of Catholic families in these two counties is not as general as in several other New York counties, such as St. Lawrence and Franklin counties in the northern part of the state. It may be that in Cortland and Otsego counties, Catholic families are more isolated in the communities and this may account for some of the lack of participation since the patterns of association are Protestant.

Participation by Ownership and Land Class

In our previous studies it has been shown that it is the land owners residing on the better farm lands, class III, IV, V and VI, who are the active participants.⁴ Therefore, it is advisable to compare the participation

⁴ See the studies previously referred to. Farm land is classified in New York state from Class I to VI. Class I is the poorest land and is almost unused for farming purposes. Class VI is the highest grade farm land available.

scores of the owners by denominations so as to be more certain that comparison is being made between farmers of the same levels. Thus if any denomination has a disproportion of members residing on the poorest land farms or are tenants or farm laborers, they become excluded.

When scores are classified in this manner, the proportions in each denomination with scores of less than 10 points usually decreases and the proportions with scores of 20 or more increases, as would be expected. The same conclusions apply, however, both for husbands and wives as has been previously given when compari-

son of participation is made by denomination. The non-church members living on land classes III to VI have much higher proportions of the husbands and wives with scores of less than 10 points than do the members of any of the denominations. (Table II).

The Catholic adherents, both husbands and wives, and especially the wives, have larger proportions with low scores and smaller proportions with high scores than do the comparable groupings in any of the Protestant denominations. (Table II).

Comparison of the Protestant de-

TABLE II. THE PROPORTIONS OF THE HUSBANDS AND WIVES IN FARM FAMILIES LIVING IN LAND CLASSES III, IV, V, AND VI FOR OTSEGO AND CORTLAND COUNTIES, NEW YORK, BY THEIR CHAPIN PARTICIPATION SCORES AND DENOMINATIONAL AFFILIATIONS

Denominational Affiliation	Number of		Husbands' Scores					Number of		Wives' Scores				
	Husbands		0	1-9	10-19	20+	Total	Wives		0	1-9	10-19	20+	Total
Catholic														
III & IV	45	0	29	47	24	100	45	0	67	27	6	100		
V & VI	12	0	0	42	58	100	13	0	54	8	38	100		
Congregational														
III & IV	14	0	14	14	72	100	14	0	29	29	42	100		
V & VI	13	0	0	31	69	100	13	0	0	23	77	100		
Baptist														
III & IV	66	0	14	29	57	100	63	0	24	28	48	100		
V & VI	14	0	0	21	79	100	17	0	6	35	59	100		
Methodist														
III & IV	158	0	10	37	53	100	196	0	24	34	42	100		
V & VI	28	0	7	25	68	100	29	0	14	24	62	100		
Presbyterians														
III & IV	37	0	8	35	57	100	43	0	16	30	54	100		
V & VI	11	0	0	18	82	100	16	0	13	12	75	100		
Friends														
III & IV	13	0	8	38	54	100	11	0	9	18	73	100		
Non-members														
III & IV	221	23	42	27	8	100	210	56	24	17	3	100		
V & VI	9	11	34	22	33	100	9	22	22	11	45	100		

nominations with each other do not show as marked differences in the participation scores of the farmers and their wives who reside on the better farm lands as is the case when the residents of the poorer lands as well as tenants and farm laborers are included. (Tables I and II). What this means specifically is that the Methodist and Baptist denominations in these two counties have relatively more members than do the other denominations who live in the poor land areas or are farm tenants and laborers and their low scores increase the proportions of the whole Methodist and Baptist denominations with low scores. Protestants residing on land classified III or better are fairly similar in their participation activities.

Participation in Specific Organizations The Farmers

In the measurement of the social participation of these farm husbands and wives, membership and other elements of participation in the church were included in the scores. It is possible, therefore, that in some of the denominational groupings, scores are unduly influenced by activities in the church since the church furnishes more activity possibilities than almost any other rural organization. Therefore, percentages were computed for membership in organizations other than church, so that comparisons can be made by denomination on the participation in secular organizations only.

The organizations generally available to farmers in these counties are the Grange, the Farm Bureau, vari-

ous Lodges, the Dairymen's League Milk Marketing Cooperative and other cooperatives. The chief organizations generally available to farm women are: the Home Bureau, the Grange, and the Parent-Teachers Association.

The membership of farmers in the Grange is lowest for non-church members. The membership of Catholics who reside on land class III in the Grange is no higher than that of non-church members, but membership of Catholics who reside on land class V and VI is 11 per cent higher than that of non-church members. Membership in the Grange of the Protestant denominations is higher than that of the comparable non-church members and Catholics in each instance. It is considerably higher than the membership of non-members and Catholics in the Congregational and Methodist denominations for farm owners who live in land class III and IV, and considerably higher for the Congregationalists, Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians who live in land classes V and VI. The same principle of participation therefore holds when non-members, Catholics and Protestants are compared as to membership in this specific organization as is true of their general participation. (Table III).

Membership in the Farm Bureau is held in almost identical proportions by non-church members and the Catholics, while each of the Protestant denominations have larger relative memberships. The Congre-

TABLE III. THE PROPORTIONS OF THE FARMERS LIVING ON LAND CLASSES III, IV, V, AND VI IN OTSEGO AND CORTLAND COUNTIES, NEW YORK, WHO BELONG TO SPECIFIC SECULAR ORGANIZATIONS BY THE CHURCH DENOMINATION TO WHICH THEY BELONG.

	Number of Husbands	Grange	Farm Bureau	Lodge	Dairy- men's League	Other Co-op	Other than Church	Belong to No Secular Organizations
Catholic								
III & IV	45	33	22	9	13	51	33	27
V & VI	12	67	58	17	33	42	67	0
Congregational								
III & IV	14	86	79	29	36	100	29	0
V & VI	13	100	77	54	23	100	100	0
Baptist								
III & IV	66	41	38	26	33	79	24	12
V & VI	14	100	57	57	43	36	36	7
Methodist								
III & IV	158	63	39	22	27	70	41	7
V & VI	28	86	68	32	35	79	68	4
Presbyterian								
III & IV	37	38	51	19	35	65	49	11
V & VI	11	82	82	45	27	10	11	0
Friends								
III & IV	13	38	31	23	54	31	23	13
Non-members								
III & IV	221	34	23	7	19	61	25	23
V & VI	9	56	56	0	11	67	33	11

gationalists and the Presbyterians have especially large proportions of their members in this organization. (Table III).

While the proportions of the farmers who belong to Lodges is smaller in all instances than of those who belong to the Grange and the Farm Bureau, it is especially low for non-church members and Catholics, for only seven per cent of the non-church members and Catholics who live on land class III and IV, and none of the non-church members and only 17 per cent of the Catholics who live in land class V and VI are members of a Lodge.

The proportions of the five Protestant denominations belonging to Lodges are not greatly different from each other except in the case of Methodists living in land class V and VI, where the proportion is 32 per cent compared with 45 to 50 per cent for the other denominations. The proportions of the Protestant farmers residing on land class III and IV belonging to Lodges exceed those of the non-church members and the Catholics living on similar farms by 15 to 20 per cent, while for those residing on land class V and VI, they exceed by 25 to 30 per cent. (Table III).

The Dairy-men's League is a milk

marketing cooperative and is generally available to these farmers. The proportion of the Protestant farmers in each denomination belonging to this organization is considerably higher than that of the non-church members and the Catholics for those residing in land class III and IV and for those residing in land class V and VI it is higher than the non-church members. The Catholic farmers living in land class V and VI belong to the Dairymen's League in slightly higher proportions than the Congregationalists and the Presbyterians but not in as high proportion as the Baptists, while the proportion is similar to that of the Methodists.

Other cooperatives are also operative in these rural areas and the extent of membership in them is indicated by the high proportions in almost every group who are members. While only a small proportion of the non-church members belonged to the Dairymen's League, over six out of each ten were members in some other cooperative. These are not necessarily milk marketing cooperatives but it shows how favorable the cooperative form of business is with these farmers since similar or higher percentages of the church members are also members. The non-church members belong to the "other cooperatives" in larger proportions than do the Catholics. This is true both for those residing in land class III and IV and in land class V and VI. The non-church members living in land class III and IV do not, however, belong to "other cooperatives" in as

large proportions as do the comparable groupings of Congregationalists, Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. Those non-church members residing in land class V and VI belong to these other cooperatives in larger proportions than do the Baptists and Presbyterians on similar land but in smaller proportions than the Congregationalists and Methodists. (Table III).

There are certain other organizations than the ones specifically indicated here, chiefly of the local community type, that are available to farmers. Since these are usually more special in their interests and therefore appeal to particular groups, comparisons of membership in them by denominations are probably not too reliable. However, here also, it can be pointed out that in general, the proportion of the Protestant church members belonging to these exceeds that of the non-church members and of the Catholic church members. (Table III).

A final comparison by denominations may be made for the farmers. The proportions of the Protestant church members residing on land class III and IV who do not belong to any organization ranges from zero to 13 per cent. For non-church members it is 23 per cent and for Catholics it is 27 per cent. For Protestants residing on land class V and VI, the range is zero to seven per cent, while for non-church members it is 11 per cent and for Catholics zero per cent. Fewer Protestants belong to no secular organizations at all, therefore,

than is true of non-church members or Catholics.

The Wives

Without giving all the specific facts, it may be stated that the same general principles hold for the participation of the wives as is true for the husbands when comparison is made in similar ways. This is especially emphasized in the proportions of the wives who do not belong to any organizations. Much larger proportions of the wives than of the husbands do not belong to any secular organizations. When comparison is made by denominational affiliation, 56 per cent of the wives of the non-

church members living on land class III and IV and 44 per cent of those living on land class V and VI are not members of any secular organizations. Of the wives who are Catholic, 64 per cent of those living on land class III and IV and 54 per cent of those living on land class V and VI are not members of any secular organization. Of the Protestant denominations, those wives belonging to the Congregational church have the lowest percentage who are members of no secular organization, 29 per cent of those living in land class III and IV and zero percentage of those living in land class V and VI. The Bap-

TABLE IV. THE PROPORTION OF THE FARM WIVES LIVING ON LAND CLASSES III, IV, V, AND VI IN OTSEGO AND CORTLAND COUNTIES, NEW YORK, WHO BELONG TO SPECIFIC SECULAR ORGANIZATIONS BY THE CHURCH DENOMINATION TO WHICH THEY BELONG

	Number of Wives	Home Bureau	Grange	P. T. A.	Other than Church	Belong to No Secular Organizations
Catholic						
III & IV	45	9	27	0	13	64
V & VI	13	38	38	15	31	54
Congregational						
III & IV	14	21	57	7	100	29
V & VI	13	77	100	0	100	0
Baptist						
III & IV	63	10	44	8	38	40
V & VI	17	41	71	12	12	12
Methodist						
III & IV	196	20	47	4	36	37
V & VI	29	41	62	17	79	21
Presbyterian						
III & IV	43	9	37	23	67	30
V & VI	16	56	69	19	100	0
Friends						
III & IV	11	64	55	0	18	18
Non-members						
III & IV	210	11	19	5	12	56
V & VI	9	22	33	11	44	44

tists have the highest proportion of wives living in land class III and IV not belonging to any such organization, 40 per cent, while the Methodists have the highest proportion of wives living in land class V and VI who do not belong to such an organization. Each of the Protestant denominations has much smaller proportions of the wives who belong to no secular organizations than is true of the non-church members and of the Catholics. (Table 4).

Summarizing these facts on participation in organizations other than church units, it can be said that church members in general participate more actively in other community organizations than do non-church members. As between the denominational groupings the Friends, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians seem to be more active than the Baptists, Methodists, and Catholics.

Implications of This Study

A chief conclusion confirmed from these facts is that membership in a religious denomination is associated with participation in other organizations. Individuals who live in rural areas and belong to churches are active in other kinds of organizations in larger proportions than those who are not church members. It is

not possible to say whether it is the membership in the churches which brings about the activities in the other organizations or membership in the other organizations which results in active church participation. That rural people who belong to churches have more interest in promoting community welfare and so support other organizations more generously than those who are not church members seems to be a reasonable conclusion. This relationship between participation in the church and other organizations supports a broader principle that has emerged from our participation studies, namely that the extent of the participation of individuals in organizations is an expression of a general family participation factor which characterizes rural families in greater or lesser degrees.⁵

Denominationally, when the factors of land ownership and land class are held constant, participation in the rural areas of New York seems to be greater among Protestants than Catholics and the Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and Friends seem to be slightly more active than the Baptists and Methodists.

⁵ W. A. Anderson, "The Family and Individual Social Participation," *Amer. Soc. Review*, VIII, 4, (Aug., 1943), p. 42 ff.

W. A. Anderson, "Family Member Roles in Social Participation," *Amer. Soc. Rev.*, VIII, 6 (Dec., 1943), p. 719 ff.

The Land and the Rural Church

By T. S. Buie†

ABSTRACT

This study illustrates how land misuse and soil erosion seriously affect the rural church. The 222 churches were classified into three groups according to soil conditions surrounding each church: moderate erosion, moderate to severe erosion, and severe erosion. These groups included 47, 89, and 86 churches respectively. Membership in churches in the least eroded areas averaged 160, with 132 and 105 in the areas where erosion was more and most severe. There was only slight difference in the average attendance reported by pastors. The widest differences appeared in the average of total contributions to the churches. There was \$1,135 annually in the least eroded areas, and \$762 and \$533 where erosion was progressively more severe. Pastors' salaries averaged \$431 in the first group, \$300 in the second, and \$241 in the third.

RESUMEN

Este estudio demuestra como el uso erróneo de la tierra y la erosión del suelo afectan a la iglesia rural. Las 222 iglesias comprendidas en el estudio se clasificaron en tres grupos de acuerdo con las condiciones del suelo alrededor de cada iglesia: erosión moderada, erosión de moderada a severa, y erosión severa. Estos grupos incluían 47, 89 y 86 iglesias, respectivamente. Las iglesias en las regiones de menor erosión tenían un promedio de 160 feligreses, las de regiones con más erosión tenían 132 y las del mayor grado de erosión 105. Había muy poca diferencia en la asistencia media de los feligreses. Las diferencias más notables se encontraron en el promedio de los donativos totales de las iglesias. En las áreas de menor erosión éstos ascendían a la suma de \$1,135 dólares anualmente, y en las de erosión progresivamente más severa, a \$762 y \$533 dólares, respectivamente. Los sueldos de los sacerdotes tenían un promedio de \$431 dólares en el primer grupo, \$300 dólares en el segundo y \$241 dólares en el tercero.

Since pioneer days in the Southeast the church has been an integral part of rural community life. Probably the church was the first social institution of every pioneer community. In the early days, and in fact until quite recently, it was the center of community life and activity; but changing conditions have had the effect of minimizing the importance of the rural church.

It is essential, if rural churches are to take their proper place in the life of the community, that the church members themselves have adequate

incomes. Farmer income is derived from the products of the soil, and as productivity of the soil decreases, incomes shrink. As incomes decline, as a consequence of reduced productivity of the land—so often due to erosion—the financial support of the rural church likewise declines. Thus we see the ultimate effect of a chain of circumstances set in motion by rainfall running unchecked from cultivated fields—soil depletion, reduced yields, lower incomes, and less support for the rural church.

For generations, agricultural and social leaders throughout the South have deplored a farm economy based

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on the production of a single crop such as cotton or tobacco. Under a cotton economy, the South prospered in former generations; but little did the farmers realize, as necessity forced them to bring into cultivation ever steeper hillsides, that they were utilizing even to destruction their greatest asset—the topsoil. As worn-out eroded farms cannot compete economically with high-producing areas, neither can communities composed of such farms support social institutions equal to those on better land, or in keeping with the needs of their own people.

It is apparent to anyone who has studied the soil that there must be a definite relationship between the productiveness of land and the support of the rural church. In order to evaluate this relationship in economic terms, a study was undertaken of 222 rural churches of the Upper South Carolina Methodist Conference, located almost exclusively in the Piedmont section, where soil erosion ranges from moderate to extremely severe. The 222 churches were classified into three groups, determined by the condition of the land surrounding each church. The groupings were:

Moderately eroded areas, (A); areas ranging from moderately to severely eroded, (B); and areas where the land surrounding the church was severely eroded and largely unsuited for cultivated crops, (C).

This classification, made by three technicians of the Soil Conservation Service who were thoroughly familiar with the area, was based on general knowledge of the territory rather than field surveys. Visits to a number of the churches indicated the correctness of the classification, which is strengthened by the consistency of the data subsequently compiled. The numerical distribution of the churches in the three groups, A, B, and C, ranging from least to most severely eroded land, was 47, 89, and 86 churches, respectively.

Information as to the membership and attendance at regular church services was secured from the resident pastors. These data are shown in Table I.

As will be noted, the average membership per church ranged from 160 for the moderately eroded land and 132 for the moderately to severely eroded areas, to 105 for those located on the most severely eroded land.

TABLE I. MEMBERSHIP AND AVERAGE ATTENDANCE OF 222 RURAL METHODIST CHURCHES, SOUTH CAROLINA PIEDMONT,* GROUPED ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF EROSION OF LAND SURROUNDING EACH CHURCH

Degree of Erosion	Number of Churches	Average Membership	Average Attendance	Percentage Attendance
Moderate (A)	47	160	79	49.4
Moderate to Severe (B)	89	132	63	47.7
Severe (C)	86	105	49	46.7

* As reported by pastors in charge, October, 1942.

Thus it is seen that there is a direct relationship between the size of the church membership and the severity of erosion of the land surrounding the church. Abandonment of many fields due to severe erosion, and consequent migration from such areas, is reflected in smaller church congregations.

Rural folk of the Southeast are fundamentally religious and, on the whole, support their churches by attendance at its services and by financial contributions to the extent of their ability. The survey showed that the percentage of members attending church services was nearly as great for the churches on the most eroded land as for those where the land retained more of its original productivity. The range was only from 49.4 to 46.7 per cent; therefore, the differences were not significant. This indicates that insofar as interest in the church is measured by attendance at its services, the members of those churches in the most eroded areas are just as interested as are those who live on less eroded land.

The average amount contributed to the church for all purposes annually

for three years was tabulated for each of the three groups. These data compiled from the records of the Upper South Carolina Conference are shown in Table II.

From this table it can be seen that there is a very definite inverse ratio between the contribution to the church and the extent of erosion of the land surrounding it. These differences were determined to have statistical significance. The 3-year average contribution for those churches located on the least eroded land (A), was \$1,135.21, while the amounts for the B and C groups were \$762.48 and \$533.27, respectively.

Another very interesting relationship between the degree of erosion and contributions for all church purposes is shown by the annual variation in farm income. Generally, the returns from agriculture in Piedmont South Carolina were greater in 1940 than in 1939, and still higher in 1941. This was reflected in larger contributions to the church, but at the same time such increases were greater for those churches located on the least eroded land. The contributions for all purposes for the churches in the A

TABLE II. THREE-YEAR AVERAGE OF TOTAL CONTRIBUTIONS FOR ALL PURPOSES AND CONTRIBUTIONS FOR SUPPORT OF PASTOR IN 222 RURAL METHODIST CHURCHES, SOUTH CAROLINA PIEDMONT.* CHURCHES GROUPED ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF EROSION OF LAND SURROUNDING EACH CHURCH

Degree of Erosion	All Purposes		Support of Pastor	
	Amount	Per Capita	Amount	Per Capita
Moderate (A)	\$1,135.21	\$7.09	\$431.37	\$2.70
Moderate to Severe (B)	762.48	5.78	299.93	2.27
Severe (C)	533.27	5.08	241.09	2.30

* Data from Annual Conference Reports of Upper South Carolina Conference.

group increased 12.7 and 16.9 per cent for 1940 and 1941, respectively, over 1939. Similar figures for the churches on the medium eroded areas were 10.3 and 13.3 per cent. The churches on the most severely eroded land exceeded their 1939 contributions by only 4.2 and 5.2 per cent, respectively, for 1940 and 1941. Apparently the churches located on land not too severely eroded shared in the farmers' increased prosperity, but church members on the most eroded land either did not experience a comparable gain in income, or if they did so benefit, they used the additional money to buy necessities of life.

The range of per capita contributions for the churches on the three types of land is significant. Farmers living on the more severely eroded land had less to divide with the church; but because of the smaller number of members in the churches located on such land, the decrease per capita is not nearly so great as the decrease in total contributions.

The amount contributed for the support of the pastor likewise shows consistent variation in accordance with the erosion condition as shown in Table II. Where erosion was least, the average annual salary of the pastor was \$431.37 per church. Of the group of churches on the land of moderate to severe erosion, the average salary of the pastor was approximately \$300 per year; but those who were serving churches on the most severely eroded land were expected to provide for themselves and their families on a salary of \$241.09 per

year per church—less than \$5.00 per week. These differences also were found to have statistical significance. Such low income even for those serving churches on the better land necessitates the grouping of a number of churches—sometimes as many as six—under one pastor, with consequent reduction in service. Such churches supply only a minimum of services, frequently only those provided by and through the pastor.

It is interesting to note that the range in per capita contribution for the pastor varied only slightly for the three classes of land. In other words, the individual members living on the most severely eroded land contributed nearly as much per person to the pastor's salary as did the members of the churches on the most productive or least eroded land. But because of the lower membership of churches in such areas, the pastor fares badly, even though a very large percentage of the total contribution goes to his support.

The average per capita contribution for the pastor's salary is as much or greater in the churches located on the most severely eroded land as in many of the most progressive town and city churches; but a large part, approximately one-half, of the total raised in the poorer rural sections goes to the support of the pastor, which is woefully inadequate to support him and his family. In the town and city churches, on the other hand, a much smaller proportion, sometimes not more than one-eighth or even one-tenth of the total contri-

bution is used for the salary of the pastor. Expressed differently, this means that the churches on the most severely eroded areas are able only inadequately to support their own churches and have little to share with others.

The low contributions in the rural sections, and especially where the poorest or most eroded land is found, results in such areas' being served by the less experienced or otherwise less capable pastors. In the very places where the need is greatest, the leadership is poorest. Probably this cannot be avoided; nevertheless it is a serious situation for the already handicapped areas.

Data presented in the second column of Table III show that contributions for building and repair of church property decline in direct relationship to the intensity of erosion. As will be noted from the data, members of the churches on the least eroded land contributed an average of \$195.40 annually for the building and repair of church property during the three-year period studied. Those churches on the most severely eroded land had less than one-third of this amount, or \$60.62 to use annually, for building and repairs during the same three-year period. The figure for the intermediate group was in proportion—\$145.77. Are the people living on the most severely eroded land any less desirous of having creditable and attractive church buildings in which to worship than are their neighbors who live on better land, or is this difference due to

their inability to spare from their meagre incomes more money for church buildings?

The Sunday School, which is the great recruitment ground for the church, likewise is sorely handicapped in its work by the effects of severe erosion as will be noted from the next column of Table III. During the period 1939-1941 inclusive, the average annual contribution through the Sunday School by the people living on the least eroded land was \$126.11, whereas the Sunday Schools of those churches on the most severely eroded land contributed an average of only \$50.50 annually during the same period. The figure for the churches located on the land which ranged from moderately to severely eroded was \$69.59.

As might be expected from what has been said relative to other phases of the church work, the support of the women's missionary movement likewise declined as the extent of erosion of land surrounding the church increased. The churches on the least eroded land contributed annually an average of \$71.26 through the Women's Society of Christian Service. The average contribution declined to \$49.47 annually for those churches located on land ranging from moderate to severely eroded; and still further, to \$31.23 for the churches located on the most severely eroded land.

The percentage of churches that had circles of the Women's Society of Christian Service likewise declined as the degree of erosion was intensi-

TABLE III. THREE-YEAR AVERAGE OF CONTRIBUTIONS FOR VARIOUS PURPOSES IN 222 RURAL METHODIST CHURCHES, SOUTH CAROLINA PIEDMONT.* CHURCHES GROUPED ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF EROSION OF LAND SURROUNDING EACH CHURCH

Degree of Erosion	Buildings and Repairs	Sunday School	Womens' Society of Christian Service	Orphanage	Benevolences
Moderate (A)	\$195.40	\$126.11	\$71.26	\$55.61	\$110.82
Moderate to Severe (B)	145.77	69.59	49.47	30.18	77.95
Severe (C)	60.62	50.50	31.23	23.86	59.32

* Data from Annual Conference Reports of Upper South Carolina Conference.

fied. Seventy-seven per cent of those located on the least eroded land had such organizations, but only 70 per cent of those in the next group supported the activity, and of those churches on the most severely eroded land, only 45 per cent had active circles for their women members—another illustration of the handicap of poor land.

In Table III also are reported the average amounts contributed annually to the orphanage by the churches in each of the three land categories. Again the amount varies with the erosion condition of the land. The average for those in the most severely eroded areas, it will be noted, is less than one-half that contributed per church in the least eroded sections.

The contributions for missions and other causes classified as benevolences, likewise varied in accordance with the extent of erosion. As shown in the last column of Table III, the average amount contributed for such purposes by the churches in the least eroded territory was \$110.82, with figures of \$77.95 and \$59.32, respectively, for the other two land cate-

gories, B and C, where erosion was more severe. As stated previously, people living on severely eroded land have little to share with others.

According to statements of church leaders of the South, one of their great problems is the economic condition of the rural church. Since the welfare of the rural church is so vitally related to that of its constituent members, any improvement in the economic condition of the church must come through improvement of the economic status of the people who make up its membership. One of the best means of accomplishing this end is through a more efficient utilization of our soil resources, which in turn will result in higher yields and new sources of farm income.

Fortunately, the present program of soil conservation being put into effect by thousands of farmers in the Southeast is already bringing this about and such a program is being extended in ever-widening circles. Improved land use is enabling farmers to develop more pasture, produce more hay and supplemental grazing crops, and generally to diversify their farming operations, in-

crease production of livestock, and become less dependent on cotton and other erosion-inducing crops.

Such a program will in large measure prevent the waste of soil resources such as has occurred to a marked degree on the land where churches in Group C are located and to a lesser extent in the other groups. At the same time it will bring about increased yields and provide addi-

tional income, which in turn will be reflected in increased support for the rural church.

The change that has come about in the economic condition of the rural church is in part at least the result of long neglect of our fundamental soil resources. Improvement in this condition can come only through a basic attack at the roots of the problem. Progress will come slowly, but surely, nevertheless.

Rural Churches and Community Integration

By Louis Bultena†

ABSTRACT

A church survey in a rural area near Madison, Wisconsin, reveals that the rural churches here are highly selective with regard to memberships. Their memberships cut across many boundaries of areas which may be considered communities according to other criteria. Members often travel far from home to go to the church of their choice. The rural church serves to integrate family, occupational, nationality, status groups, and the like, rather than community groups based on localities.

RESUMEN

Un estudio hecho en un distrito rural cerca de la ciudad de Madison, estado de Wisconsin, revela que los feligreses de las iglesias rurales en este distrito constituyen grupos selectos. Los miembros de cada grupo pertenecen a diversas localidades, y a menudo viajan lejos de sus hogares para asistir a la iglesia de su preferencia. La iglesia rural, por lo tanto, integra grupos familiares, nacionales, de ocupación o de posición social o económica, más bien que grupos basados en localidades.

This paper presents the results of a survey of certain aspects of the church situation in the Cottage Grove rural community located about ten miles east of Madison, Wisconsin. The area covered includes the village of Cottage Grove as the center and extends out radially in all directions

to a distance of about four miles. The village is made up of farmers and retired farmers (45%), workers (mostly employed in Madison) (35%), and local business and professional people (20%). Practically all of the population in that part of the area surrounding the village are engaged in farming. The area surveyed is shown in Figure 1.

† University of Wisconsin.

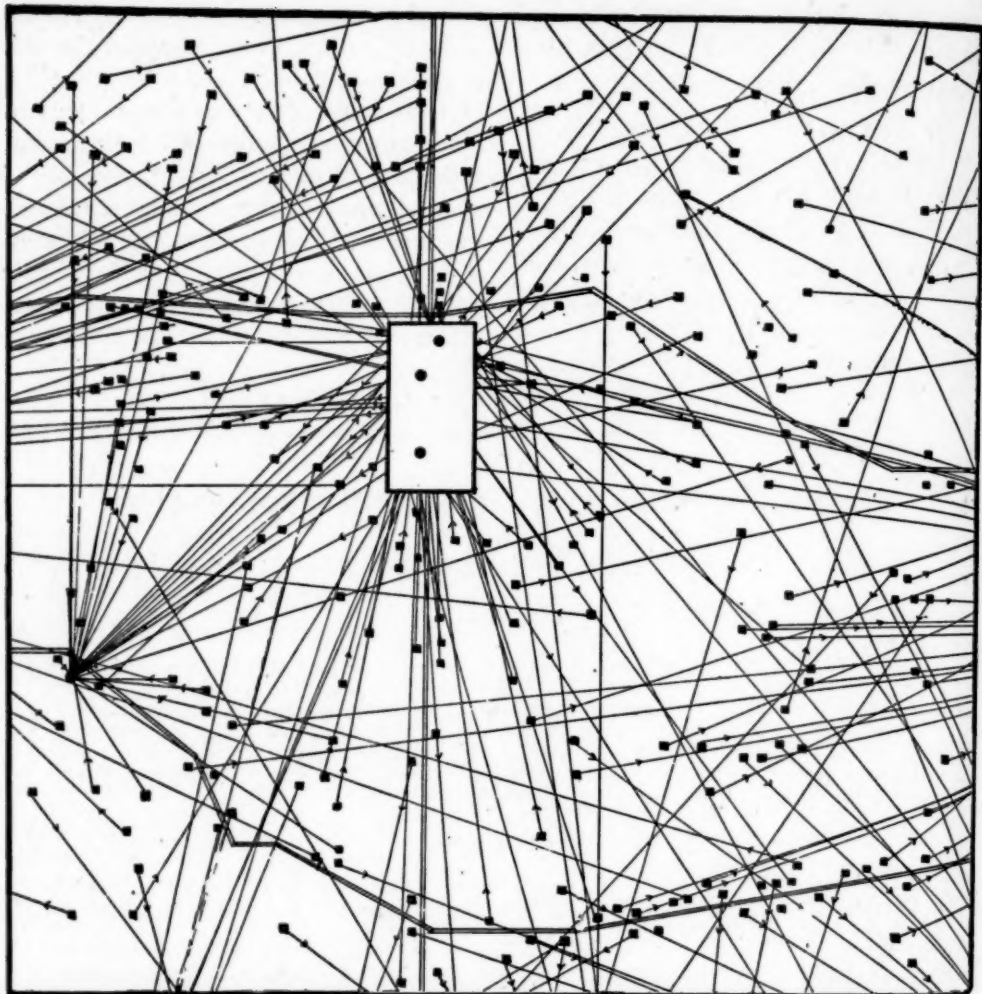


FIGURE 1. This shows the Cottage Grove surveyed area. The rectangle in upper center is the village of Cottage Grove. Each small square represents a house. (The village has 60 houses. These are not indicated). The three small circles in the village represent churches—from top to bottom—No. 3, 1, and 9 (see table). The small circle at the lower left is church No. 2. Lines connect the houses with the church attended by the family. (Lines running off the map converge where the different churches would be if mapped). Scale: Two inches equals 1 mile. indicates main highways. This map shows the complexity of the church-going pattern in this community.

In the total area there were 343 families, of which 97 lived in the village and 246 lived outside. Though

this area is near a city of 65,000 inhabitants, the mobility of its population has not been high. The survey

showed that 47 per cent of the heads of families had always lived in the area, 15 per cent had lived here 21 to 30 years, 11 per cent 11 to 20 years, 10 per cent 6 to 10 years, and 18 per cent 5 years or less. Sixty-two per cent of the families owned their homes or farms. This indicates a relatively stable population.

Families of Norwegian and German background predominate. Thirty-six per cent of the heads of families were of Norwegian ancestry, 35 per cent German, 10 per cent Irish, 14 per cent English, and 5 per cent "other." Thus, the population is almost entirely of north European origin.

In spite of the stability and ethnic homogeneity of the population, however, the survey revealed that its membership is divided between many churches. If one counts all churches to which two or more families belong no fewer than 18 churches are represented in this small rural area. If one counts every church represented the total is 40! These churches are listed in Table 1. About one-third of them are in the open country. Most of the children in the area go to school in the village, much of the family trading is done there, and practically all of the people attend the free movies and other entertainments in the village. Yet, in spite of these ties to the village, the church affiliations of the people are scattered in all directions.

The village has a Presbyterian and a Catholic church and also a Lutheran group which meets in a leased business building. This latter group

is made up chiefly of mal-contents who, about ten years ago, broke away from other churches. Only one other church is located within the area, about 5 miles southwest of the village. (See Figure 1).

The 48 per cent of the people in the area who are Lutherans attend more than twenty churches belonging to five different Lutheran denominations. On Figure 1 these Lutheran memberships are plotted—each home of a member family being connected to the church attended by a line. Only two of these many Lutheran churches fell within the range of the figure so that in the case of those not included, the lines converge where the church would be if mapped. The heavy bunch of lines running off the figure to the left lead to five Lutheran churches in Madison ten miles away.

The lines on the figure give some idea of the complexity of the Church-going pattern in the rural area described. The average distance which all families travel to church is about 5 miles. If we exclude the village families the average distance is nearly 6 miles. This is interesting when one considers that the area has a density of about 35 persons per square mile.

The Churches As A Divisive Community Influence

A superficial observer, seeing a church in the open country and attending some of its services, might easily conclude that the church was a center of integration for the neighborhood area in much the same way as a rural school. Yet this inference

TABLE I. CHURCHES ATTENDED BY AND CHARACTERISTIC OF MEMBER HEADS OF FAMILIES LIVING IN THE COMMUNITY OF COTTAGE GROVE, DANE COUNTY, WISCONSIN

[illegible]

would be far from accurate in the Cottage Grove area. For it is clear that the rural church, like the city church, selects and draws its members, primarily on the bases of class, nationality backgrounds, family relationships, and other cultural factors.

Between the churches of this rural community there is often real, though covert, conflict and competition. There may be formal cooperation in the sense that the members of different churches sometimes attend one another's dinners and other money-raising functions. But this is generally done with the tacit assumption that the members of the other church will thereby be placed under obligation to help them with their functions in turn. The individual churches realize that unless they aid other churches the other churches will not aid them, and without this aid they may die.

In reality each church is struggling against others for status and competing with them for members. The established churches are also constantly under pressure from outside sects and from sectarian tendencies within themselves which threaten and challenge their position. For example, the little group of Lutherans meeting in the village broke away from other local churches. The writer has often heard the leaders of the parent churches express resentment at the "outside element" which came in and organized this group. Again the four Lutheran open-country churches located about ten miles

south of the village were formerly two churches that some years ago split into two factions. In each case the seceding group built a new church directly across the road from the old. There is obvious rivalry and competition even between churches of the same denomination.

In view of this situation, it seems reasonable to assume that the churches in the area represent a divisive influence and offer obstacles to total rural community integration.

Homogeneity Within Churches

On the other hand it is interesting to discover evidence that the rural church in the Cottage Grove area serves as an effective force for drawing together certain small groups that are quite homogeneous in social, economic, and nationality characteristics. Thus four-fifths of the families in Church No. 1 (see Table I) were home-owners, whereas the 70 no-church families were equally divided between owners and renters. The church-going families also differed from the no-church families in being older residents of the community. Families at almost the same economic level, as indicated by the assessed values of their homes tended, as would be expected, to go to the same churches. The home valuations of those who attend church in Madison were the highest, while those of the village Lutheran group were the lowest.

While churches show a fairly balanced mixture of the several nationalities in the community several are highly selective with regard to

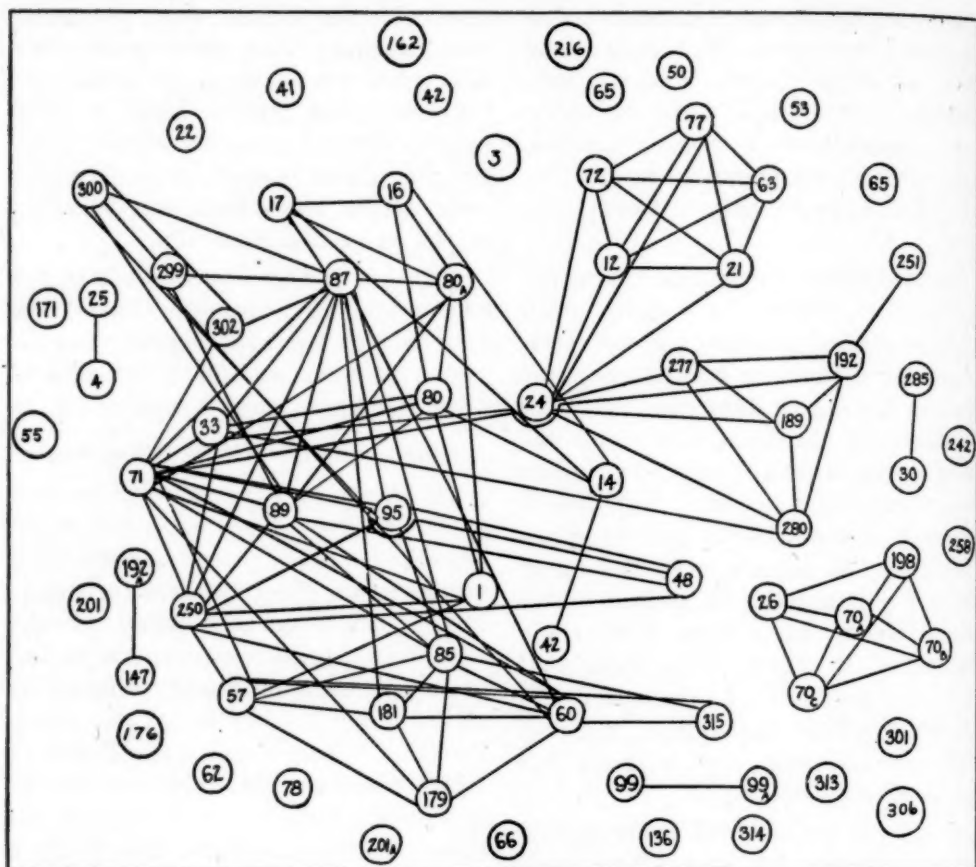


FIGURE 2. Chart showing blood relationships of one church of the Cottage Grove area.

nationality. In Church No. 2, for example, 24 of the 30 family heads are of German antecedents, and in Church No. 4, 25 of the 29 family heads are of Norwegian extraction.

In the entire surveyed area only ten families showed a division in church membership. Six of these were Protestant-Catholic, four were inter-Protestant splits. Family integration on religious matters in this community is high.

Figure 2 shows the blood relation-

ships of the families of the Presbyterian Church of the village of Cottage Grove. In this chart are included only close relationships such as brother, sister, parent, first cousin, and uncle and aunt. Five of the families showing no relationships have moved into the community within the past five years. By comparing this chart with Figure 3 one can see that this church is largely "a family affair." Figure 3 shows the amount of relationship among the neighbor

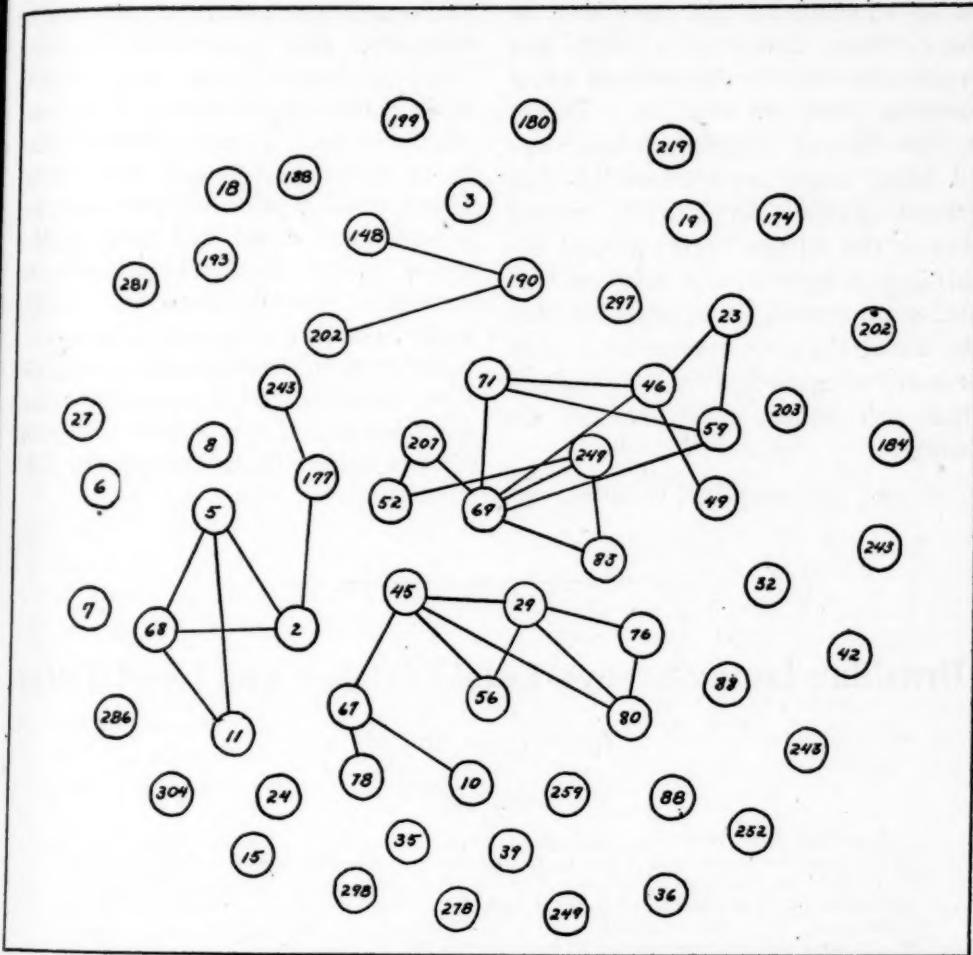


FIGURE 3. Chart showing blood relationships of families (of various and no-church) who are next-door neighbors to the families of Figure 2.

families living next door to those of Figure 2. In this control group, which attends a variety of churches or none at all, few blood relationships are evident.

The outsider may wonder why two struggling churches across the road from each other—practically alike in creed—do not unite and thus form one stronger church with a better

choir, better equipment and so on. He does not realize the strength of the bond created by common interests and long participation together in many services of worship, church socials and special occasions such as funerals, baptisms, and weddings. The church is the place where strong emotional experiences occur. Even the building in time acquires a pe-

culiar sanctity for its members. In the Cottage Grove area there are practically no organizations that compete with the churches. Except for the "Royal Neighbors" there are no local lodge or commercial club groups. Except for a small bridge club in the village, social groups are shifting, nebulous, and without formal organization. It is probable that the rural church commands a more primary allegiance from its members than any other group except the family.

During the past few decades sev-

eral denominations have combined or federated. But, in general, the combinations seem to be only formal, with unification mostly at "the top," while the local church units continue to remain separate and to compete. Many other studies of rural churches in America show that they seldom unite except from sheer economic necessity. Rural churches usually seem to prefer extinction to union.

By way of summary one may say that in the area studied rural churches serve to integrate groups or classes rather than localities or communities.

Brazilian Land Surveys, Land Division, and Land Titles

By T. Lynn Smith†

ABSTRACT

Brazilian land patterns are based almost exclusively in natural phenomena, hence they contrast sharply with the geometrical arrangement of the cultural landscape in the United States. Portugal allowed the colonial population to establish itself on the land, guided only by the wishes and convenience of the individual. With the establishment of the Republic in 1889, rights to the public lands were transferred to the states. In South Brazil a modified version of the river front land division has developed during the last century. This has now been perfected to a high degree and must be rated as superior among all the systems man has devised for dividing the earth's surface among farm families.

RESUMEN

O traçado de limites das propriedades se baseia, no Brasil, quasi que exclusivamente em fenômenos naturais, estando, portanto, em vivo contraste com o arranjo geométrico da paisagem cultural nos Estados Unidos. Portugal permitiu à população colonial ocupar a terra guiada tao somente pelos desejos e pela conveniência do individuo. Com o estabelecimento da República, em 1889, os direitos às terras do domínio público foram transferidos aos estados. No Brasil meridional tem-se desenvolvido, durante o último século, uma versao modificada da divisão de terras com frente para os rios. Esta tem sido levada, agora, a um alto grau de aperfeiçoamento, devendo ser colocada entre os melhores systemas inventados pelo homem para dividir a superfície da terra entre famílias agrárias.

† Louisiana State University. On leave.

The manner of surveying and dividing the land and the system or lack of it in recording land titles are among the most significant of all man's relationships to the land. In considering these three closely related topics there are two major points to keep in mind: (1) the extent to which the land surveys are definite, permanent, and determinate; and (2) if the farmers reside on the land, as is generally the case in Brazil and the United States, the extent to which the system that is used permits farm houses to be located near one another, makes for economy in the building, upkeep and use of roads, electric lines, etc., and allows the settlement pattern to be adapted to the natural environment in a way that will secure the maximum adjustment to and benefit from topographical and structural features of the landscape such as slopes, watercourses, soil types, vegetation, etc.

Indeterminate Land Surveys in Brazil

Brazilian land patterns are oriented almost exclusively in natural phenomena such as streams, divides, water fronts, etc. Property lines whenever possible follow either a stream or a ridge. Roads generally are oriented with respect to topography, and almost never determined by man-made features of the landscape. Houses are built with no relation to the distances west of Greenwich or south of the Equator. In short, the pattern of land surveys and land division in use is one that is

based on natural phenomena, and not oriented with respect to the man-made degrees of latitude and longitude. Naturally this contrasts sharply with the geometric arrangement of the cultural landscape that is such a prominent feature in the United States.

Land surveys and property descriptions in Brazil are based on European models, with the result that all the descriptions contained in Brazilian deeds are given according to a system of metes and bounds. The points of departure for land surveys usually are surface phenomena of one kind or another and the lines followed are streams, divides, or previously existing property lines. Since water courses, hill tops, etc., often follow irregular lines, this means that the surveys are indeterminate. Rare is the Brazilian land title that lacks the phrase *mais ou menos* (more or less).

Such a system of surveys also is lacking in permanency. The beds of streams constantly shift about, especially when they flow through broad level plains such as cover such a large part of Brazil. Even the absolute position of a dividing ridge may be altered considerably by the process of erosion. Markers may be removed from one location to another; and all knowledge of the course of a previously established property line may perish with the death of an old settler. Lack of permanency in boundaries is a fruitful source of conflict between owners of adjacent properties.

On the other hand, the use of metes and bounds for establishing boundaries and the practice of using surface features of the landscape as the points of departure, makes it possible to adapt settlement patterns and farm layouts to the topography and other features of the natural landscape. Over a period of years through experimentation in colonization and settlement, the Brazilians have gained a great deal of valuable experience about this feature of a land system.

This promises to bring valuable results as the process of dividing the nation's *fazendas* in small farming communities continues to go ahead. In the wisely planned colonies of recent years the general practice is to divide the land in the following manner. A stream and a dividing ridge is taken as the basic line in a new settlement, and farms are laid out fronting on the stream and running back to the dividing ridge. The sides of the holdings are usually parallel with one another. Variations in size of farms are made by increasing or decreasing the width of the land that runs from stream to ridge.

It is unnecessary to cite cases at great length to illustrate the prevalence of indeterminate systems of surveys in Brazil. Nevertheless, it is useful to consider a few typical cases. First, should be established the facts that in the early days little or no concern was paid to questions of limits or boundaries, and that as time has passed, as properties have

changed hands, been subdivided, or been consolidated into larger tracts, a very confused situation has arisen. A quotation from the official charged with taking the 1920 Agricultural Census in the State of Piauí illustrates this state of affairs very well.

In Piauí the lands are commons, *pro indivisu*. It is customary to speak of a "data da terra" to indicate the area of a *sesmaria*, [land grant] whose extension is almost always three leagues in front by one in depth. Those *sesmarias* conceded during the colonial regime although delineated at that time, now generally have the marks obliterated and each one is divided into various possessions, in a manner more or less vague and abstract, out of which originate constantly questions among the holders of the various titles, especially in the places most subdivided (which are the areas where are found the *carnauba* and the coconut palm trees.) The proprietors never express the extension of their properties in *alqueires*, *tarefa*, or any other agricultural measure; they give the selling price.¹

Or one might prefer the short but expressive summary of the *delegado* for the State of Alagoas who merely reported: "Rare, very rare, are the rural properties in Alagoas that are regularly surveyed."²

Today some of the States such as São Paulo, Rio Grande do Sul, and Santa Catarina, are devoting considerable attention to improving land

¹ *Recenseamento do Brasil, 1920*, Rio de Janeiro: Typographia Estatística, 1926, Vol. I, p. 504.

² *Ibid.*, p. 509.

surveys and titles, although conflicts over boundaries and titles continue to vex even these most developed states. Here is the property description in a deed typical of those now being given in South Brazil:

Beginning at a hardwood marker which was set on the right bank of the Bom Sucesso Creek and following the border with lot No. 212A in the direction S.W. 18 degrees and 31 minutes for a distance of 814 meters to a marker placed on the Bom Sucesso-Jacutinga divide; from there the line follows the said divide in the direction SE 64 degrees and 14 minutes for 126 meters to a marker similar to the others; from this point it follows along the boundary with lot No. 202C in the direction NE 21 degrees and 51 minutes to a marker set in the right bank of Bom Sucesso Creek, and finally it follows up this to the point of departure.³

Meanwhile, other states such as Mato Grosso continue to lay the basis for future troubles by permitting such descriptions as the following of the lands being alienated:

To His Excellency the General Secretary of the State.

Ciraco Rondon, Brazilian, married, represented by his qualified counsel who formulated this statement and who signs below, desiring to acquire by purchase from the State a piece of unoccupied land, pastures and fields, with 500 (five hundred) hectares, more or less, in the

place called "Baía de Santa Terezinha," situated on the right side of the Riozinho, in the *município* of Herculanea, presents himself very respectfully to request your excellency that, following the fulfillment of the legal formalities, you will do him the honor to cede by sale the said tract of land, with the following boundaries: on the North, beginning on the bank of the Riozinho at the limit of the lands of Paulino Luiz de Barros, and following this property line to a certain point; on the West and South with unoccupied lands; on the East separated from the Fazenda Cervo by the same Riozinho. The petitioner subjects himself to all the obligations of the law. Cuiabá, August 26, 1942. P. P. Gabriel Neves.⁴

The Evolution of Brazil's System of Surveying and Recording

Brazil was first divided into 12 *capitanias*, each having a 50 league front on the coast, and apparently intended to extend inland to the arbitrary line separating the Spanish and Portuguese domains in the New World. These *capitanias* never were marked, except on the coast, and they were soon retrieved by the King and all placed under a viceroy. Then about the middle of the Sixteenth Century, Thome de Souza was sent to the New World clothed with authority to grant *sesmarias*. He soon began giving away large tracts to men of good position and family for the establishment of sugar *engenhos* (plantation and mill). Each successful applicant got enough land to sup-

³ This description is one used by the North Paraná Land Company, whose officials courteously supplied this and other information concerning their activities.

⁴ Printed in the *Diario Oficial* of the State of Mato Grosso, Oct. 6, 1942.

ply the cane for a mill and for setting up an establishment large enough to maintain the towers, fortifications, and private army necessary for defense against the Indians. This resulted in an almost complete lack of system in dividing, surveying, and recording of titles to lands. To quote a Brazilian authority on the subject "it abandoned to the colonist himself the selection of his territorial seat" and "the colonial population established itself in our territory in obedience, not to a predetermined plan of geographical distribution, but to the wishes and convenience of the individual."⁵ In this manner indiscriminate location, haphazard surveys, lack of concern over titles, very early laid the basis in Brazil for a chaotic situation similar to that which the same factors produced in Kentucky, Tennessee, and the neighboring states of our own Union. However, Brazilian estates were large and the number of land owners small, so that the number of conflicts and the extent of the complexities were fewer, than would have been the case if more people had been directly interested. Even at that the conflicting and overlapping claims undoubtedly had an adverse effect upon the nation's growth and development. This became particularly true after Brazil began to seek immigrants, to try to establish a class of small farmers on the land.⁶ It was the inevitable result where

lands were obtained by grant as

⁵ Ruy Cirne Lima, *Terras Devolutas*, Porto Alegre: Livraria do Globo, 1935, pp. 35-36.

well as by purchase; and being distributed by the map, instead of by survey and measurement, it cannot be wonderful that confusion and contests should arise with respect to their boundaries. To ascertain and establish their claims, many landholders fix around their borders a number of small tenants, called *Moradores*, who pay a trifling rent, procure their subsistence chiefly by the cultivation of vegetables, and answer the important purpose of watchmen, preventing encroachments of neighboring proprietors and the robbery of the woods.⁷

During the latter part of the Eighteenth Century squatting became prevalent. No longer did the government select leading men to go out and establish *fazendas* on the rivers or in the valleys, in which unauthorized settlements had been commenced, in order to bring the small free lancers under their control. Possession and occupation came to be accepted among the woodsmen in much the same way as "tomahawk rights" were between our own frontiersmen. This practice of squatting became general after 1822 when Brazil secured her independence and the giving of *sesmarias* was abandoned.

In 1850 the Imperial Government of Dom Pedro II, then in the prime of his life and playing a leading role in trying to improve the land system and induce the farming classes of

⁶ Cf. Michael G. Mulhall, *Rio Grande do Sul and its German Colonies*, London: Longmans, Green, and Co., 1873, p. 127.

⁷ John Luccock, *Notes on Rio de Janeiro and the Southern Parts of Brazil*, 1820, p. 293.

Europe to establish homes in Brazil, promulgated a very important law pertaining to the land. Among its provisions was one which established sale as the only legal manner of alienating public lands in Brazil, and another which decreed that surveys should be based on the true meridians, and that property dividing lines should cut one another at right angles. Neither of these provisions were ever strictly carried into effect, although the former has been a basic feature in Brazilian land policy from that time forward.

In 1889 Brazil became a Republic and the Constitution adopted brought about a great decentralization of governmental powers. Among other things all the public lands were given to the states, and those that have not been alienated still belong to them. Some of them have done very little to develop or even maintain a land policy. Others, and particularly those in the South, have made great strides in the important phase of agricultural policy. From there, through the process of colonization, these reforms are being diffused to other parts of the Nation.

River-Front Land Division In South Brazil

The system of dividing lands that has been developed in the colonial areas of South Brazil has attained a high degree of perfection. It permits the farmer to reside in the land without sacrificing the social and economic advantages derived by having his home near those of the neighbors,

and at the same time the farms are laid out in the manner that is best adapted to the topographical features of the area settled.

The pattern of land division used on the numerous colonies or settlements that have been established by Federal, State, and private agencies is a modified version of the river-front type that is so characteristic of French settlements. In the earlier colonies such as the German settlement at Blumenau in Santa Catarina, the river was used as the base for the surveys, roads followed the streams, and holdings rectangular in shape, except on the end that fronted on the stream, were laid off. In the early Santa Catarina colonies the farm plots usually measured 110 meters in width by 1100 in depth. In other colonies the dimensions varied, but the principle of making the width of the holdings considerably less than the length was always followed. This is the principle that must be followed in dividing the land if line village settlement patterns are to be used or developed.

From the very first the system of land division used in these Brazilian colonies had one distinct advantage over similar systems in use elsewhere. Unlike that so generally followed by French and Spanish colonists in dividing their lands, meanders in the stream did not lead to the use of non-parallel lines for bounding the sides of the plots. In these Brazilian surveys the width of the holding was uniform throughout its length.

The first colonies, however, were marred by one serious defect in their system of land division. The irregular, jagged line formed by the rear boundaries of the holdings created complications for the future settlement of the area. It also prevented the fullest adaptation of settlement forms and farm layouts to the topography of the area settled.

Gradually, as experience was secured, practices were modified, and the systems of land division perfected to higher degrees. This important feature of the relationship of men to the land seems to have attained its highest stage of development in the colonization projects of the North Paraná Land Company, and in those of the Government on the former *fazendas* of the State of Santa Catarina. Today the procedures used in dividing the land are fairly well defined. When a new settlement project is undertaken, the land is first surveyed in order to determine the course of all streams and to delineate the lines followed by the divides of all the principle watersheds. A detailed map of the area is made in which all of these are plotted. In the Northern Paraná project roads are laid out along the top of the divide;

in Santa Catarina they usually follow the stream. But in both states the tract of land cut off for a prospective purchaser or colonist is bounded on one end by the stream and on the other by the ridge or road. Variations in the sizes of the farming plots sold or allotted are secured by increasing or decreasing the width of the holding, and never by modifying the stream-to-divide principle of determining their length.

This system makes use of the desirable feature of having the holdings much less in width than in length, the long-lot farm, thus allowing the settlers to capitalize on the social and economic advantages of line village settlements. At the same degree it permits a high degree of adaptation to topographical and other natural features of the landscape. Every settler has access to water. All have some bottom land and some hillside. If the natural covering is varied, as frequently is the case, all have some of the types of timber that grow in the lowlands as well as the upland varieties. In short, every settler participates in both the advantageous and disadvantageous features of the location.

NOTES

Edited by Paul H. Landis

FACILITATION OF SOCIAL ACTION IN THE FIELD OF RURAL HEALTH AND MEDICAL SERVICE

Certainly one of the chief problems confronting the rural sociologists in the Land-Grant Colleges of Agriculture is that of facilitating social action. Although the College of Agriculture is not ordinarily regarded as an action agency, the Extension Services closely approaches an action agency in nature. The College is in constant contact with federal and state action agencies, farmers' organizations and others functioning in the rural field. At the present time in Missouri, the area of rural health and medical service is one in which important developments are taking place.

When the writer moved to Missouri in 1938, he soon became convinced that the rural health and medical service situation then prevailing in the State was such that social action appeared to be imminent sometime within the near future. He determined to begin preparation for the facilitation of such action. Accordingly, an Experiment Station project was launched for the purpose of gathering scientific data which would reveal the true situation existing in the rural areas. Sample counties were selected which, according to best judgment, appeared to be representative of the rural social areas of the State.¹ Each county was roughly stratified according to its socio-economic areas, the number of families in each estimated, and block samples of approximately ten per cent were located in each. These families were visited and a schedule embodying the illness experience of the family for a year and what they did about it was taken. As the survey progressed, other features were added as, for example, a controlled interview dealing with health practices, the use

of home remedies and patent medicines, and the families' conception of their situation with respect to health and medical service. Doctors were interviewed, also, to obtain their appraisal of the situation and a careful inventory of all medical and health agencies functioning in each county was taken.

In all, five counties were surveyed in the above manner. However, the field work was not all done at once, but was spread over several summers. In the meantime, other developments were in progress. Contacts were made with prominent men in the Missouri State Medical Association who were known to be socially minded in the matter of health. Contacts were also maintained with the State Department of Health and with Group Hospitals, Inc., an organization which had just begun to grow rapidly in St. Louis.

In the spring of 1941, the Farm Security Administration, using a staff of doctors, dentists, and technicians, gave complete physical examinations to the members of all client families in the seven counties of Southeast Missouri, commonly known as the "cotton-delta" or "boot-heel" area. These records covered more than 800 families and were carefully done. The findings were briefly summarized by the Regional Medical Adviser at Indianapolis following which the Regional Director invited the Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station to make a careful summary of the entire body of data. This task was undertaken in the fall of 1941, and within a year three preliminary bulletins were issued.² These bulletins were widely circulated and given excellent

¹ Lively, C. E., Gregory, C. L., *Rural Social Areas in Missouri*, Missouri Agr. Exp. Sta., Research Bul. 305, August, 1939.

² Lively, C. E., Lionberger, Herbert F., *The Physical Status and Health of Farm Security Clients in Southeast Missouri*, Preliminary Reports 1, 2, and 3, 1942.

publicity in the press, notably by the St. Louis Post-Dispatch, and accomplished much toward arousing interest in the rural health situation.

By the spring of 1942, the State Land Use Planning Committee had become sufficiently interested in the rural health situation that a sub-committee on health was appointed with the writer as chairman. Much of the interest stemmed from the fact that of the 90 counties which had prepared Land Use Planning reports, 70 emphasized the need for some improvement in the health and medical situation. The report of the sub-committee reviewed the general situation, utilizing research materials already collected by the Department of Rural Sociology, and stressed four points: (1) that the physical condition of the rural population is far from what it ought to be as indicated by research data referred to above and also by draft rejections; (2) that the rural population is sorely in need of vital health education; (3) that there is an insufficient supply of rural physicians, and (4) that the existing supply of physicians is not available to the various elements of the rural population on anything like an equal basis. The committee emphasized that the situation was not likely to right itself and recommended, among other things, that the Missouri Agricultural Planning Committee and State Agricultural Extension Service cooperate with the Missouri Medical Association to work out feasible policies for meeting the difficulties cited and for carrying on more effective health education.

About this time the Missouri Farm Bureau became the official sponsor of Group Hospitals, Inc. in the rural districts. Since that time it has organized prepayment hospital groups in a majority of the counties in which it is operating in Missouri. More recently the Farm Bureau has undertaken to promote the building of rural hospitals of which there is a great scarcity in the State.

During the summer of 1943, two research bulletins were issued based upon data collected in the survey of five counties.³ One

of these bulletins, reporting in readable non-technical language the family health practices prevailing in Dallas county, a sub-Ozark county, told an impressive story and has been well received. The fact that farm families unable to obtain modern medical service were turning to home remedies and patent nostrums created some disturbance among the medical profession.

In the meantime the writer was functioning as a member of the Regional Committee on Post-war Planning for Rural Health and Medical Service of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and was thereby able to keep informed and also to keep a closer contact with developments elsewhere, particularly within the medical and dental profession. Such contacts served to develop confidence within the Missouri State Medical Association that the rural sociologist was not only reliable but conservative from the point of view of innovations along the line of socialized medicine.

In the fall of 1943, the President of the University of Missouri was confronted with the problem of expanding the two-year medical school to a four-year school. While plans and policies for the organization and orientation of this new development were in progress, the writer prepared a special report to the President stating the case for the rural population of Missouri. By the use of research materials already collected, it was possible to indicate the need for medical service in the rural areas, the growing scarcity of doctors as a result of the war effort, and the inevitably high death rate that will occur among rural doctors within the next few years. The report also emphasized the growing proportions of aged people in the rural population and the fact that they require more medical service than younger people. It stressed the fact that no normal flow of physicians into the rural areas in the near

³ Almack, R. B., *The Rural Health Facilities of Lewis County, Missouri*, Missouri Agr. Exp. Sta., Research Bul. 365, May, 1943; Meier, Iola and Lively, C. E., *Family Health Practices in Dallas County, Missouri*, Missouri Agr. Exp. Sta., Research Bul. 369, June, 1943.

future would be adequate to meet the need even if such flow could be anticipated; that in the absence of trained physicians, the rural population will be served increasingly by inferior practitioners and will resort more and more to patent medicines and home remedies. The report stressed the need for rural hospitals as a rallying point for rural practitioners, and the need for devices for spreading the high costs of modern medical service. This report was privately circulated among people who would be interested, notably the members of the Post-war Planning Committee of the Missouri State Medical Association headed by a member of the University of Missouri Medical School. In this manner, the report unmistakably played an important role in the formulation of the report of that committee which was presented at the April, 1944 meeting of the Missouri State Medical Association in Kansas City. In June, 1944, a limited edition of the report was issued to satisfy the number of requests to examine it.⁴

Since its introduction into the U. S. Senate in 1943, the Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill to provide a Federally sponsored prepayment medical plan for the population of the United States has created much discussion in the public at large and no little opposition among members of the medical profession. The influence in Missouri was similar to that elsewhere in that it tended to bring plans to the fore. Also, the Post-war Planning report sponsored by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, the Missouri section of which was prepared by the staff of the College of Agriculture, re-emphasized research findings referred to above and urged the establishment of rural hospitals as the backbone of an adequate

rural medical system. This report was discussed with prominent rural leaders in the state. The Missouri Farm Bureau was sufficiently impressed that it began campaigning for the establishment of rural hospitals. The St. Louis County Medical Society went on record in March, 1944, as favoring a state pre-payment medical plan controlled by a non-partisan board. The following month at the Kansas City meeting of the Missouri Medical Association, that Association voted to set up a pre-payment medical plan for moderate income families covering hospital cases only, to be in operation by early fall, 1944. That plan is now being prepared, and the Missouri Hospital Association is actively concerned with the problem of obtaining more hospitals in rural areas.

This brief sketch of recent developments in the area of rural health and medical service in Missouri is sufficient to indicate that a strong public interest is now crystallizing into action. The problem is to make that action as intelligent and serviceable as possible. The part played by the rural sociologist in these developments may be summarized as follows: (1) he saw the imminence of social action sufficiently early to prepare for it, (2) he provided factual research materials to define the situation and clarify public thinking, (3) through numerous personal and professional contacts, he developed confidence among prominent leaders in his reliability and unbiased point of view, and (4) he set out, as he saw them on the basis of sound research data, the basic fundamentals which must be considered in the building of a better program for rural medical service. This, I take it, summarizes fairly well the role that he would play in facilitating social action.

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⁴Lively, C. E., *Rural Health and Medical Service in Missouri*, Missouri Agri. Exp. Sta., Mimeographed Bul., 1943.

WHAT EXTENSION RURAL SOCIOLOGISTS ARE DOING*

SUMMARY OF ANNUAL REPORTS 1943

Name of Worker

Extension Rural Sociologists in 17 states included 45 full and part time workers. Two states employed six workers; three, three; and four, two workers. The balance had one each. The workers were designated by the following names: Extension Rural Sociologist; Extension Specialist in Rural Sociology; Extension Worker in Rural Sociology; Extension Professor, Instructor or Assistant; Advisor in Organization Work; Community Service Specialist; Sociologist in Women's Work; Discussion Specialist; Extension Worker in Loan Service; Music Consultant; Recreation Specialist; and Community Drama Specialist. Two classifications are implied in these names: (1) Extension Worker in Rural Sociology and (2) Extension Worker in specialized fields related to Rural Sociology, such as music, drama, discussion or recreation.

General Fields of Service

Community organization, helping develop Extension programs, assisting with group activities, and assisting neighborhood cooperators were the chief general fields of service.

Community organization included work with community councils, calendars, rural churches, rural youth, leadership training, fire prevention, rural schools, intergroup relations, surveys, rural-urban relations, and libraries.

Group activities included assistance to local units of farmers and homemakers organizations, to rural youth and 4-H Clubs, to economic cooperatives and similar groups. Assistance was given in leadership training, program planning, and organizational analysis, and in the development of leadership in music, drama, social recreation, camp activities, and work with racial groups.

* As shown by Annual Reports and Plans of Work from Brief submitted by Dr. Douglas Ensminger, USDA, analyzed by Dr. D. E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois.

Specialists organized news stories and magazine articles for publication. Some were responsible for a monthly or bi-monthly publication providing helps in organization and program planning, and some carried on radio programs.

No details were given relating to the development of statewide Extension Service and assisting neighborhood cooperators' education.

Special Wartime Fields of Service

Specialists in Rural Sociology were called upon to promote effective community organization for the execution of wartime programs; to aid with planning to meet social problems; to furnish basic data for wartime programs, and for post-war planning; to encourage group discussions, community forums and mass meetings; to develop recreational leadership to provide release from wartime tensions; to aid in carrying out state educational wartime campaigns; and to give specific help on nutrition, to OCD, War Savings, Salvage and Red Cross programs.

Underlying Principles

The following were taken verbatim from the reports:

To help rural people in their community, neighborhood and organizational relationships which concern them as groups.

To give attention to statewide organization and coordination; to discover and interpret community and group social needs; to develop plans and programs to meet these needs; to adapt Rural Sociology Extension activities to wartime social conditions.

To improve group relationships and advance rural progress by means of consultation, conference, preparation of subject matter, radio, correspondence, surveys, assistance in planning training schools, and festivals.

Integrating recreation with other extension projects; for example, nutrition, home furnishings, and the neighborhood leader plan.

To provide groups for the diffusion of

agricultural information; to aid in multiplying the effect of demonstrations; to help develop the individual through social contacts, self-expression and shared responsibility.

To stress the importance of group activity; to organize farmers on the basis of a square deal; to maintain overall agricultural organization supported by the Agricultural College; to work only with and through the Farm Bureau and other farm organizations having the same qualifications.

To stimulate interest in home and community recreation among all rural people and organizations; to train volunteers for recreational activities; to increase the quantity and improve the quality of recreational programs; to carry recreation through existing groups rather than to form additional organizations.

To promote the efficiency of the neighborhood leader system during the war and local leadership generally after the war, neighborhood leaders to be restricted to wartime duties and not to teach practices or skills.

Assignment of Personnel

Every state designated a project leader. In addition, specialists were assigned to community organization, county and local planning, preparation of basic social data, cultural activities, discussion leader training, conferences to integrate rural programs, leadership training, training in music, drama, and recreation, rural-urban relations, assistance in 4-H Club work, in charge of women's work, and distributing loan materials.

SUMMARY OF PLANS OF WORK FOR 1943

Name of Project

Ten different names were given for the project as follows: Rural Sociology, Rural Organization, Rural Leadership, Farm Organization, Community Organization and Recreation, Rural Women's Organization, Rural Life, Rural Young People, Neighborhood Activities, and Recreation. Most of them could be classified in the field of Rural Social Organization.

The Major Phases of the Project

The project phases assigned to different specialists for which time allotments were computed included the following designations:

General: Agricultural Extension Service program, community organization, farm organization, rural social information and program service, rural organization, community development, county program planning for rural life development, dissemination of basic social information, integration of groups and organizations in rural life, rural leadership, development of community leadership, assistance to organizations outside of Extension.

Wartime: Integrating group relations, wartime education programs, neighborhood and community organization, war emergency work, community organization for war work, neighborhood activities in country districts.

Projects: Discussion, citizenship and home activities, speech, emergency fire control, accident control, supervision of labor program, better homes, mobilization of manpower, cultural activities and recreation for release from wartime tensions, drama, music, games, handcraft, camping.

Youth: Assistance in Rural Youth and 4-H Club work.

Materials: Radio, news releases, special articles, monthly program service, loan service, and special circulars.

SUMMARY AND COMMENTS

Workers in the field of Rural Sociology carried on, as approved projects, service in the fields of (1) rural community organization; (2) Extension organization; (3) rural group activities and intergroup relations; (4) rural institutions and (5) cultural activities related to rural life. Though related in general to rural community life, those projects had a broad range; all projects dealt in one way or another with rural groups and institutions. The Rural Sociological approach is the group approach to the solution of the problems of rural people.

Methods used were not clearly defined

from subject-matter. Rural Sociologists in some states gave most time to aiding and improving group methods to carry on Extension or other programs. These efforts were primarily directed to helping make the group function more effectively.

In leadership training, the Rural Sociologist's function seemed to be to train the leader to function successfully with the group, as contrasted with training leaders to handle farm and home practice subject-matter.

Subject-matter included basic social information to aid in: rural community organization designed to integrate groups in the community for coordinated action; to help groups improve their programs and services to rural people; to assist in carrying out wartime programs, particularly on the neighborhood level; to provide programs and train leaders for cultural activities; and to show rural social conditions and trends.

In the coming post-war period, assistance in rural community planning probably will be in constant demand; such planning should more effectively integrate the programs of voluntary groups and governmental agencies. The area for the most effective coordination should be the community through rural institutions—the home, church, school, and library, as well as through present rural organizations. The approach of the Rural Sociologist is to improve the effectiveness of the institution or organization and its relationship to other groups and institutions in the community, as well as to help make the service of these institutions of greater value to rural people. This is a unique field for the Rural Sociologist, for no other Extension specialist deals in this field, though farm and home practice subject-matter is provided for the programs of the workers in those institutions by other Extension specialists. The present manner in which the Extension Service works with these institutions, and particularly the church and school, should challenge a reconsideration of the approach

to leadership training and program planning as traditionally carried on by the Extension Service. The Rural Sociologist's service will be needed and will be valuable in these fields.

Where principles laid down by Rural Sociologists in finding natural neighborhoods, locating the right leaders, planning workable programs, and in other ways recognizing and using existing leader and group resources, have been used, the programs have been effective, though obviously mistakes have been made. The neighborhood system is important to the Extension Service, and Rural Sociologists, if given adequate support and cooperation, can help make it a real factor in the development of a post-war Extension organization.

Rural Sociologists have a contribution to make as specialists in rural social engineering: to get *all* groups and interests in rural areas to work together to solve post-war problems. The special fields of subject-matter to which Rural Sociologists can contribute, are the group and organization aspects of such fields as health, school reorganization, church improvement, social security, improvement of living standards, farm tenancy, and the general field of community planning as it relates to special problems like land use.

A careful review and study of the services performed now by Rural Sociologists, and what contributions they will be able to make in the years ahead, should be made by the Extension Service in the USDA and in all the colleges. It may be that such an effort could be best implemented through a special committee organized through the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities.

Rural Sociologists should give careful consideration to the work of the American Country Life Association, especially since its wartime efforts have emphasized the need of coordination, cooperation and organization on the community level.

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CURRENT BULLETIN REVIEWS

*Edited by Conrad Taeuber**

Public Thinking on Post-War Problems: National Planning Association—36 pages.
Jobs and Security for Tomorrow: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—30 pages.
Reconversion of Industry to Peace: National Planning Association—24 pages.
Freedom from Want! a World Goal! Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—30 pages.
Form People and the Land after the War! National Planning Association—26 pages.
World Needs for U. S. Food and Fiber: National Planning Association—71 pages.
UNRRA: Gateway to Recovery: National Planning Association—84 pages.
The Army, The Soldier, The Civilian: Special Services Committee—15 pages.
Educational Reconstruction in Europe: U. S. Committee on Educational Reconstruction.
War, Babies, and the Future: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—30 pages.
Rebuilding Europe—after Victory: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—32 pages.
Why Race Riots? Lessons from Detroit: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—31 pages.
What about our Japanese Americans? Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—29 pages.
The Races of Mankind: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—31 pages.
Our Constitutional Freedoms: Public Affairs Committee, Inc.—32 pages.
The Catholic Church and Christian Democracy: Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches.—43 pages.

The above sheaf of sixteen current pamphlets dealing with the most important contemporary problems of our time, represents something relatively new in American public education. In spite of the fact that Thomas Paine's meagre pamphlet played

such an important role in our revolution, the American people have not taken readily to pamphleteering. Our cultural mores lead us to prefer books, and until very recently, we refused to buy books unless they were encased in cloth bindings. Critics seem to think that this peculiarity is a reflection of our pecuniary system of valuation. In America even the poor prefer expensive-looking commodities. But a gradual change in our collective habits seems to be taking place. It may be that paper shortages have contributed to the new demand for pamphlets and paper-bound books, but I believe there is a deeper meaning in this change. My explanation leads in two directions: first, I have the feeling that first-rate writers have come to realize the importance of their public role and are anxious to secure a wider audience; secondly, sensitive readers have come to recognize the fact that the quality of ideas is not necessarily commensurate with the cost of communicating those ideas to the public.

Among the writers who have contributed to the pamphlets now before me are found the names of Jerome S. Bruner, Murray Benedict, Elizabeth Hoyt, John D. Black, William F. Ogburn, Maxwell S. Stewart, Carey McWilliams, Ruth Benedict, Gene Weltfish, Robert E. Cushman, Earl Brown, Don Luigi Sturzo, Feliks Gross and Hiram Motherwell. This is an imposing list of names, persons who are something more than mere scholars or professional writers. I presume the title which suits them best is that of publicist, if this word may be endowed with dignified meaning. (By the way, the original definition of the term "publicist" as used in the English language was "one who is learned in public or international law"!). If my premise may be taken for granted, we are then confronted with the work of a group of American publicists, that is, persons who have knowledge and convictions which they believe to

* Assisted by Elsie S. Manny, Earl H. Bell, Ralph R. Nichols, Rachel R. Swiger, U. T. Miller, Eleanor H. Bernert, Hsin-Pao Yang and Edgar A. Schuler.

be sufficiently important to elicit concern on behalf of a large number of citizens. If, in other words, a large number of readers could be found for this type of literature, we should expect the consequence to be a more enlightened public opinion.

Eleven of the pamphlets now being considered deal specifically with problems related to the post-war world, three are focussed on the issue of race relations, and two are concerned with questions of a more abstract nature, namely constitutional rights and the relation between religion and democracy. Since it is my viewpoint that these pamphlets should be regarded as instruments of public education, I shall attempt to convey some notion of their contents by listing the involved issues in the form of three sets of questions.

A. Questions pertaining to the post-war world:

- (1) What opinions do Americans now hold with respect to such questions as
 - (a) planning for employment by business, by labor and by government?
 - (b) the need for coordinated planning?
 - (c) planning for industrial reconversion?
 - (d) planning for demobilization?
 - (e) planning for aid to soldiers?
 - (f) planning for social security?
 - (g) the continuation of war-time economic controls?
- (2) What facts are available concerning
 - (a) the economic needs of various populations of the world?
 - (b) the probable condition of agriculture after the war?
 - (c) the world's probable requirements for American foods and fibers?

- (d) the probable need for public works after the war?
- (e) the relative merits of the British (Beveridge) and the American plans for social security?
- (f) the type of general education now being made available to the armed forces of the United States?
- (g) the plans and the scope of activities of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration?
- (h) the technical tasks involved in industrial reconversion?
- (i) the probable population growths and declines in the future world?
- (j) the probable effects of the war on family life?
- (k) the probable condition of Europe after the War?
- (3) What principles should guide the program of educational reconstruction in Europe?

B. Questions pertaining to race relations:

- (1) what is the fundamental interpretation of the race riot in Detroit, Michigan?
- (2) how can other American communities avoid race riots?
- (3) how should Japanese-American citizens be treated now and after the war?
- (4) what does science have to say about the problem of race?
- (5) what are the underlying causes of race prejudice?
- (6) are there evidences that race prejudices may be lessened or removed?

C. Questions pertaining to freedom, democracy and religion:

- (1) what is the source of our civil liberties?

- (2) what dangers or threats are likely to affect our civil liberties in war-time and in the post-war era?
- (3) is the Catholic Church in theory or practice opposed to democracy?
- (4) is there unity among Roman Catholics respecting the problem of democracy?
- (5) what role is the Catholic Church likely to play in the coming struggle for democracy?

The above queries are merely samples of the types of issues raised by these pamphlets, but I think there can be no doubt concerning their importance. I doubt whether more significant issues are being discussed anywhere, in books, monographs or public addresses. What is, however, of paramount importance is the fact that these crucial issues are presented in simple language and are available at a minimum cost. The price range runs from ten cents to fifty cents per copy. In the above list twelve are sold at ten cents each.

It is obviously impossible to furnish the reader with an adequate conception of the more solid content of these pamphlets in a brief review. I wish only to add that we seem to have evolved a technique for pamphlet-writing which promises a high degree of success. *Public Affairs* pamphlets, now receiving probably the widest circulation of any series in this country, follow a logical pattern of presentation which is readily adaptable to discussion. The procedure seems to be to (a) select a timely subject, (b) secure the most competent writer available to gather and prepare the material, (c) pictorialize the contents so far as possible, and (d) edit the material in such manner as assures wide public appeal. The pamphlets published by the National Planning Association are more technical in character and often follow the same style of writing as would have been utilized if these essays were parts of books. One of the interesting features of some NPA pamphlets is represented by a unique method for arriving at conclusions: the

material comes into existence as the product of group discussions carried on by experts.

Two disturbing questions arise in connection with the use of pamphlets as educational instruments. In the first place, there are critics who insist that every writer, especially every scholar, who attempts to simplify, condense and popularize thereby sacrifices thoroughness and accuracy. In the next place, there are critics who insist that a taste for pamphlets, like the taste for periodical literature, destroys the appetite for books. My answer to the first criticism is in the form of a challenge to the critic: I ask him to read these pamphlets and then decide whether or not he believes anything important has been sacrificed. It is my considered judgment that the need for condensation actually improves the writing style of authors. In any case, the real question is whether or not a greater good can be achieved by enlisting a larger reading public. My experience in the use of pamphlets as teaching material seems to indicate that pamphlets in reality increase the students' appetite for books.

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SETTLEMENT

*Settlement problems in northwestern Quebec and northeastern Ontario*¹ reports on the physical characteristics of the land open for colonization in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario; the recent settlement policies of the Provincial and Dominion governments; and an analysis of the settlers economic experience. In the two provinces 31,000,000 acres of land are available for colonization at approximately 60 cents per acre. Various payments including transportation for settlers, premiums for building establishment, clearing and sowing, and direct relief to settlers in financial

¹ A. Gosselin and G. P. Boucher. *Settlement problems in northwestern Quebec and northeastern Ontario*. Publ. 758, Tech. Bul. 49, 54 pp. Dept. of Agr., Dominion of Canada, Feb., 1944.

distress have been given to promote settlement. Between 1910 and 1940 over 77 million dollars was spent in Quebec for the purpose of locating settlers. During that period over 80,000 settlers were located at the cost of more than \$950 per settler, but less than half of them remained, bringing the cost of each successful settlement to \$2,000. During the period from 1930 to 1940 the average amount spent by the government for each settler who remained was over \$3500.

The settlement policy of Ontario was less liberal than that of Quebec. In Quebec most of the money went into the cost of establishing and maintaining settlers of the land while in Ontario more than 90 per cent went into roads and bridges which served the dual purpose of giving employment assistance to the settlers and providing developments to serve an extensive mining and lumbering industry as well as farmers. The last part of the report is an analysis of the farming and financial progress of the settlers who remained.

*Social effects of government land purchase*² reports the findings of two parallel studies carried on cooperatively by the Mississippi Experiment Station and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The purpose was to determine what had been the social and economic impacts on several hundred families partially displaced by the federal purchase of approximately 100,000 acres for a flood control project and what had been the effect on some of the communities in the reservoir area because of loss of population, disruption of road systems, etc. The conclusion presents an evaluation of the local criticism concerning the project and some recommendations as to how some of the deleterious effects of such programs can be minimized or avoided. Two-thirds of the families in the purchase area had moved, but nine-tenths of those who did move remained within the same community

or went to a neighboring community in the same county. Only 11 per cent of the families who moved went outside the county. One community in the area lost about 15 per cent of its families. Enrollment in the high school decreased to the point where the high school was closed, churches lost members and financial support, and merchants reported losses in volume of business ranging roughly from 30 to 50 per cent. Difficulty in finding suitable land, delayed payment, and failure to understand fully the details of the purchase arrangement were among the principal local criticisms.

Problems encountered in "The California State land settlements at Durham and Delhi"³ are analyzed in the October, 1943, issue of *Hilgardia*, issued by the California Experiment Station. The author makes no attempt to either criticize or contest the validity of methods and approaches used in organizing and carrying out settlement plans in either of the two areas. Instead, he seeks to discover actual causes for failure, to point out the ensuing results, discuss adjustments made between the settlers and the State and present the distribution of losses. The report includes the development of the settlements, selection of settlers, production and financial problems, economic situation, reorganization at Delhi and the final adjustments. The author concludes: "A review of the California State Land Settlements at Durham and Delhi is fraught with difficulties. Not only were there numerous and various factors involved in the situation that came to prevail at the settlements but they were complex and often indeterminate. There were divergent viewpoints and bitter conflicts among the people involved. These attitudes, however, although ever present in later years, had little to do with the initial failure; neither groups nor personalities brought about the results obtained; rather the California State Land Settlement Board

² Ralph R. Nichols and Morton B. King. *Social effects of government land purchase*. Miss. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 390, 55 pp. In cooperation with Bur. Agr. Econ. U. S. Dept. Agr. State College, June, 1943.

³ Roy J. Smith. "The California State land settlements at Durham and Delhi." *Hilgardia*, Vol. 15, No. 5, pp. 399-492. Berkeley, Oct., 1943.

was defeated by unfeeling and relentless physical facts."

NUTRITION

Only one out of twenty persons in rural Colorado meets a "yardstick of good nutrition," according to the findings of R. W. Roskelley and his associates in the study *How rural people in Colorado meet a "yardstick of good nutrition."*⁴ They also found that very few persons in the 644 families interviewed in a cross-section of Colorado rural communities express any dissatisfaction with their diets. Milk, citrus fruit, and tomatoes, and other vegetables (not potatoes) are the foods in which deficiencies most often occur. At the same time deficiencies in these food items cause less dissatisfaction than any other deficiencies. The foods in which deficiencies are least frequently reported were cereals and bread, eggs and potatoes. More people express dissatisfaction with the lack of fresh, canned, and dried fruit than any other items, while the ones who feel they do not have enough meat miss it most keenly of any of the items. Cost is the most important single reason given for not meeting yardstick requirements by those who think they do not have enough. The author gives as possible reasons for contentment with deficiency: Lack of knowledge of what a good standard is, and dislike for certain foods.

The effectiveness of programs of nutrition education was studied in Bridgeport, Connecticut, and Richmond, Virginia.⁵ In each city about 200 women, representative of all housewives, were interviewed. Women in all income and occupational groups receive information about nutrition from such sources as the radio, newspapers, magazines, booklets and pamphlets, meetings and classes. However more than half of the

women do not feel the need for improving their knowledge of nutrition, even with war food restrictions. Greater interest in nutrition might be aroused if it were more closely related to the preparation of varied and economical meals. When interest in nutrition is acquired, women continue to learn about it and use the knowledge in solving their food problems.

A bulletin on *The problem of changing food habits*⁶ is introduced by a statement reviewing the history of the Committee on Food Habits by Carl E. Guthe. The first article, written by Margaret Mead, cites the problems involved in a study designed to guide an action program to effect a change in our food practices; notes the number of disciplines involved and states the approach to be used in integrating our existing knowledge and the results of new studies. Part II contains 10 reports on studies of such widely varying subject matter as: Forces behind food habits and methods of change, a study of the use of the friendship pattern in nutrition education, a study of the effect of odd-shifts upon the food habits of war workers, food habits of selected subcultures in the United States, tests of acceptability of emergency rations, and a summary of a study of some personality factors in block leaders in low income groups.

FARM LABOR

According to a field survey,⁷ the average farm in North Carolina early in 1944 had 6.3 persons of whom 3.3 were agricultural workers who were equal to 1.54 man-equivalent workers. But the average farm needed 1.69 man-equivalent workers to carry on the work represented by 19.3 war units, including 28.5 acres in crops. The adequacy of the farm labor supply was

⁴R. W. Roskelley. *Practices and attitudes of rural people in Colorado in meeting a "yardstick of good nutrition."* Colo. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 380-A, 23 pp. Fort Collins, Apr., 1944.

⁵U. S. Dept. Agr. Bur. Agr. Econ. *Housewives discuss nutrition programs.* A study in Bridgeport, Connecticut and Richmond, Virginia. 17 pp. Washington, D. C. May, 1944.

⁶National Research Council. *The problem of changing food habits.* Report of the Committee on Food Habits 1941-1943. Bul. 108, 177 pp. National Academy of Science, Washington, D. C. Oct., 1943.

⁷Selz C. Mayo and others. *1944 farm labor problems. Farm manpower situation in North Carolina.* N. C. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 344, 24 pp. Raleigh, May, 1944.

found to vary with the size of farm. Farms with less than 16 war units had enough manpower as a part of the regular labor force to meet production needs, but those with 64 or more war units needed 28 per cent more labor than they had. Three out of every five farms needed additional labor. The remaining two farms did not have enough surplus labor to make up the deficit on the other farms. On those farms having a deficit of available labor, the deficit amounts to 35 per cent—for all farms of the State it is 10 per cent. Detailed tables present data by the subregions of the State.

POPULATION

Kentucky's civilian population⁸ declined by 10 per cent since 1940, and the heaviest decline occurred in a group of 13 nearly contiguous counties in the northern part of Eastern Kentucky. Field surveys in five magisterial districts in as many counties found considerable divergence in the rates of loss of population and in the timing of the losses. There was a decline in the number of children under 15 since 1940, but the greatest declines occurred among men and women 15-34 years of age. The number of men 35-44 years old also declined, but women in that age group did not leave in large numbers. Population 45 to 64 years old decreased slightly in two areas and increased in the other three. The number of people 65 or over increased in four and decreased very slightly in the other district. Detailed data are given by sample areas showing the extent of migration as individuals or as family groups, the distribution of migrants by sex, age, education, occupation, place working and the number of resident members remaining in the household. Despite the heavy losses which have occurred in this area, the report concludes that if the conditions which led to the emigration of recent years persist there would be further migration away. One of the maps included in the bulletin shows

⁸ Howard W. Beers. *Effects of war on farm population in Kentucky*. Ky. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 456, 24 pp. Lexington, Apr., 1944.

for each county the approximate number of years since the population last equalled that estimated for November, 1943, ranging from 2 to 77 years.

*Rural population problems in North Carolina*⁹ is the subject of a recent technical bulletin from the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station. It traces the population growth of the State from its earliest origins, showing the geographic and cultural backgrounds of the early settlers and the growth and spread of population in the several parts of the State before the first census of 1790. With the aid of census data since 1790, the growth of the population for the State as a whole is shown. Population growth in rural and urban areas and for more recent years the farm and nonfarm population is described. The changing racial composition of the State's population is shown back to 1820. For purposes of analysis, the State has been divided into four sub-regions and many of the computations are carried through separately by region.

A recent report on *Virginia's rural manpower*¹⁰ concerns itself with the "ratio of resources to population and of workers to work opportunities in rural Virginia." To analyze and measure this main theme of the study, the author worked from three main approaches, namely the (1) economic, (2) population trends, and (3) standards of living.

A number of indices were developed to afford measures of the components involved in each approach. The economic took into account the labor force and its utilization, income and property values. Population trends include birth rates and migration in

⁹ Selz C. Mayo and Horace Hamilton. *Rural population problems in North Carolina. I. Population Growth 1790-1940*. N. C. Agr. Expt. Sta. Tech. Bul. 76, 58 pp. Raleigh, Aug., 1943.

¹⁰ Allen D. Edwards. *Virginia's rural manpower*. A study of population pressure and potential sources of labor supply. Va. Agr. Expt. Sta. Tech. Bul. 92, 63 pp. In cooperation with the Population Study Div. of the Va. State Planning Bd., Blacksburg, Dec., 1943.

relation to population pressure and employment opportunities. Standards of living covered housing items, educational levels, etc. The various indices which are explicitly defined in a section on methodology, show that several areas of rural Virginia are suffering from an imbalance between population and resources—and that this condition in turn accounts for a considerable degree of the low living standards in many counties.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

A study¹¹ was made to discover some of the forces which bring about favorable attitudes of farmers toward a cooperative marketing organization. Materials were obtained from interviewing 1256 dairy farmers in 10 Pennsylvania communities. The cooperative studied was one which served the interest of milk producers within the Philadelphia milk shed. A scale consisting of 10 questions, with different numerical values, was used to collect data and to measure the varying degree of favorableness of farmers' attitudes. Two types of attitudes were differentiated in this study, one general, the other, specific. Factors influencing the general attitude were the broadness of the specific attitudes, intensity of the specific attitudes, the degree to which compensating attitudes existed, and the operator's reason for joining the cooperative. Factors associating with specific attitudes were: extent of information concerning the cooperative, frequency of attendance at local meetings, source of information, number of organizations in which membership was held, age of operator, amount of schooling, and size of dairy. Factors having positive correlation with favorable attitudes were: amount of information, amount of schooling, religion, age of operator, size of family, number of organizations in which membership was held, mobility of operator, and size of dairy.

¹¹ M. E. John. *Factors influencing farmers' attitudes toward a cooperative marketing organization*. Pa. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 457, 34 pp. State College, 1943.

*Farm youth in the 4-H club*¹² is the sixth bulletin on the social participation of farm families in Cortland County, New York. "The chief purpose of these studies has been to discover the extent and intensity of the participation of rural people in organizations, to compare the characteristics of participants with the characteristics of those who do not participate and to point out the relationship of social and economic factors to this participation." Comparison of some of the characteristics of farm boys and girls who are 4-H club members with the characteristics of farm boys and girls who are not members showed that 4-H members belong to more organizations than non-members, are more likely to live on the better farm land classes, more frequently come from owner-operated families and have larger incomes than non-members, that their families participate more than those of the non-members and have higher levels of living, that they are more stable geographically and possess more communication facilities.

The 4-H program reaches about one in each three of the eligible farm youth. Social status differences exclude boys and girls who would benefit from the program as much or more than those from the better land classes. To reach these youth it may be necessary to organize clubs within these social levels.

MISCELLANEOUS

Dorothy Dickins's study¹³ of the influence of managerial ability of both husbands and wives upon various aspects of family living among low income farm families in Arkansas, Louisiana and Mississippi is based on Farm Security Administration's records and data secured from 576 white and 360

¹² W. A. Anderson and D. B. Fales. *Farm youth in the 4-H club*. Cornell Univ. Agr. Expt. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 13, 22 pp. Ithaca, Apr., 1944.

W. A. Anderson. *Farm youth in the 4-H club*. Part II, Cornell Univ. Agr. Expt. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 14, 14 pp. Ithaca, May, 1944.

¹³ Dorothy Dickins. *Effects of good household management on family living*. Miss. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 380, 30 pp. State College. May, 1943.

Negro families. Husbands and wives were rated separately as to managerial ability. For purposes of analysis the below-average in managerial ability and the average categories were combined and compared with the above-average managerial category. The data were analyzed to show the relationships between managerial ability and tenure status, composition of family, education, income and other economic aspects of family living, food, clothing, housing and household equipment, family cooperation, field work done by wives, participation in educational clubs, and type of reading material subscribed to.

The Baptist State Convention of North Carolina has made a study¹⁴ of the resources, deficiencies, and trends which affect the life and work of its rural churches. Eighty per cent of the Baptist churches in North Carolina, comprising about 58 per cent of the members, are located in the country or village. These churches are handicapped by poor equipment and buildings, few resident full-time pastors, inadequately trained leaders, lack of cooperation with other welfare agencies, and insecure financial status. The report suggests that the economic condition of these people should be improved by increasing the productivity of the soil and by bringing more industries into the rural areas, but they also need the leadership of well-trained young ministers who choose the rural church because of its opportunities for service.

The bulletin, *Adventures in small-scale rural enterprises in South Carolina*¹⁵ contains a series of human interest stories dealing with some of these enterprises and the people responsible for them. Small rural industries may play an important role in the future economic development of the

South. They also offer possibilities for rehabilitating wounded soldiers. Besides making a definite contribution to the production of food, fiber, and other things needed for war, such industries provide market outlets for farm products, employ farm people and bring in extra profits for farmers.

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¹⁴ Garland A. Hendricks and others. *Rural Baptist churches of North Carolina*. 56 pp. Baptist State Convention of North Carolina, Raleigh, N. C., 1943.

¹⁵ J. M. Stepp and Gil Rowland. *Adventures in small-scale rural enterprises in South Carolina*. S. C. Agr. Expt. Sta. Cir. 67, 32 pp. Clemson, Jan., 1944.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Edited by Howard W. Beers

Frontiers of American Culture. By James Truslow Adams. New York: Scribners, 1944. Pp. xiv + 364. \$2.50.

From 1937 to 1941, the American Association for Adult Education engaged in a study of the social significance of adult education. Twenty-seven brief but definitive volumes were issued, each concerned with one area of education. Mr. Adams's book is an interpretive summary of this series of studies, an assignment he was commissioned to undertake by the Association.

Mr. Adams has performed a useful and important service in this volume. His skill as a historian and interpreter of the American scene needs no eulogy from any reviewer. However, the author regrettably does not confine himself to his sources in too many parts of this book. At such points he interprets himself, not adult education, and in none too favorable a light.

Mr. Adams writes in an informal, somewhat personal style. Perhaps it is this which leads him into conclusions unfounded

in the data with which he is dealing. Thus the proof of his conviction that the returning soldier and sailor will need little or no counselling is his belief that he himself would not have profited by such an experience in his youth. Unfortunately—or perhaps fortunately—Mr. Adams is not an average man.

To him, any planning by a federal agency "implies compulsion, not freedom." The italics are the author's. Apparently, he has overlooked, among other things, the experience of the planning program of the United States Department of Agriculture, based so largely on lay committees. Mr. Adams has discovered a movement "to forbid private schools." This movement has not yet asked the reviewer to join and contribute, though judging by his mail and Mr. Dies's antics, most movements circularize all members of all university faculties.

Mr. Adams, who in 1936 solemnly wrote New York newspapers that his neighbors in Westport, Connecticut, were being generously paid for not plowing up their lawns

and planting potatoes, now arrives at the judgment that the Extension Service was a good rural adult education agency until "it got entangled" with the business of killing little pigs "*et al.*" Apart from the fact that the Extension Service had exactly nothing to do with the policies of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, it is to be hoped that Mr. Adams does not include potatoes in the "*et al.*" since there was, of course, no Agricultural Adjustment Administration potato program.

Mr. Adams discovers that the United States Office of Education is "steadily shrinking in comparative importance," whereas few, if any, regular agencies of the government have had larger proportionate increases in funds since the defense program got under way. None of these confusions of prejudice with fact occur in the source studies the historian author was supposed to have used.

It is extremely unfortunate that an otherwise important summary of a major and growing educational movement is so marred by inclusion of so many gratuitous, inaccurate and misleading statements since many of Mr. Adams' readers will not have acquaintance with the excellent series on which his study was to have been based. Moreover, it is unfair to the authors of that series.

As the director of the Association for Adult Education says in the foreword Mr. Adams does interpret adult education "as a moving vital force in American life and as a socially significant phenomenon in our developing culture." It is a fairly good book. It could so easily have been a superb book.

EDMUND DES. BRUNNER.

Columbia University.

Society and Nature, A Sociological Inquiry.

By Hans Kelsen. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. viii + 391. \$4.00.

The principal thesis of this book is that the modern notion of causality had its origin in the primitive notion of retribution. In support of this thesis, a vast literary

and historical erudition is displayed, including over one hundred pages of notes in small print. The first two chapters deal with "Primitive Consciousness" and "The Social Interpretation of Nature." After a review of ethnological material on this subject, the author concludes that "one must not term the personal beings to whom he [primitive man] traces the events of nature, as supernatural but rather as superhuman beings. Since he knows no nature, he cannot imagine a supernature." (p. 48). There follow three chapters on "The Interpretation of Nature According to the Principle of Retribution," "The Idea of Retribution in Greek Religion," and "The Law of Causality and the Principle of Retribution in the Greek Philosophy of Nature." Together these three chapters constitute more than three-fourths of the entire text. Here we find copious quotations from mythology, ethnology and Greek poetry. The conclusion drawn from this material is that

The contrast between Plato's normative religious, essentially Orphic-Pythagorean, interpretation of the world and the causal scientific concept of reality in the Greek philosophy of nature was originally not great. For its fundamental scheme: the law of causality, which this philosophy developed for the first time in the history of the human mind, arose from the norm of retribution and detached itself only gradually from this all-dominating principle of mythical-religious thinking.

The process by which this detachment is further taking place in modern science is reviewed in two brief concluding chapters, (a total of 17 pages). The conclusion is best stated in the author's own words:

With the emancipation of the causal from the normative interpretation of nature, i.e., nature as the creation of God and under the rule of the divine will, the antagonism of the empirical and the transcendental disappears from the sphere of science. . . . For modern sociology a social event appears as part of reality, determined by the same laws as a natural event. No essential difference between natural and social laws, i.e., between the laws determining

nature and the laws determining society, exists as soon as the natural law itself relinquishes its claim to absolute necessity and satisfies itself with being an assertion of statistical probability. There is no fundamental hindrance to prevent sociology's arriving at this kind of law in its own domain. In religious speculation nature was a part of society ruled according to the law of retribution. After the complete emancipation of causality from retribution in the modern notion of law, society is—from the point of view of science—a part of nature.

This conclusion has been pretty generally, but by no means unanimously, accepted in American sociology for some time. For those who still find the dichotomy of "nature" and "society" a necessary frame for their thinking, Kelsen's painstaking account of the probable ancestry of this dualism should be enlightening.

GEORGE A. LUNDBERG.

Bennington College.

Food Enough. By John D. Black. Lancaster, Pennsylvania: The Jacques Cattell Press, 1943. Pp. vii + 269. \$2.50.

This popularly written small volume could very well be called the intelligent citizen's reconnaissance book through the problems of food policy in the United States during and after the war. It is factual and informative, rather than analytical and argumentative. It is packed with useful and illuminating data which will answer a host of questions about the food requirements for our armed forces, civilians, and allied nations; the production requirements of agriculture, our capacity to produce foods, shifts in production and consumption, food prices and rationing, food requirements and supplies for relief and rehabilitation; and finally the international aspects of food policies after the war.

Some chapters are interesting to agricultural economists; others are too general and too summary for their purposes. In the first category, the last three chapters qualify particularly, dealing with the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture held at Hot Springs in 1943,

and the possibilities of approaching by means of international policies the goal of freedom from hunger. The author's appraisal of the accomplishments of the conference as well as of the possibilities for progress in improving the diet of low-income groups is marked by moderate optimism and a very wholesome realism. Professor Black strongly emphasizes the point that the key to a more adequate nutrition for the low income groups lies in the effectiveness of policies by which a high rate of industrial employment and of international trade can be accomplished. Chapter 6, on enemy food supplies, is wholly inadequate from every point of view.

Sociologists will be interested in several scattered passages in which the author stresses the necessity of restraints upon the growth of population as one of the presuppositions of a substantial improvement in the diet of the poorest nations in Asia (cf. pp. 236-37, 257). He claims that it was good diplomacy that this question was not raised at Hot Springs, and says, "*But when we settle down to consider effective courses of action, we cannot leave out almost the major factor in the whole situation.*" Italics his. "Did it really help Italy's food supply and nutrition," he asks, "for us to accept several million of them as immigrants? . . . Or was the principal result of it merely to have more Italians in the world?" ". . . Let us not, then, take too lightly this assignment of obtaining an adequate diet for all nations 'in the shortest possible time.' The balance between foods, diets, and birthrates has to be changed too. . . ."

These quotations seem to indicate that Professor Black has some definite policy in mind by which the "restraint on the birthrate" can be implemented. To the reader's discomfiture, he does not indicate the nature of such a policy. Obviously he cannot have had in mind the naive recipe of some birth-control crusaders who would solve the whole problem by teaching the mechanics of contraception and selling contraceptives. The only known economic and social changes which so far have yielded as a

by-product a falling birth rate have been a sustained process of urbanization, and rising standards of living. Nowhere has this restraint on the birthrate been the result of a policy directed toward that end, particularly not in the United States.

The race between an expansion of food supplies and the increase in the population in Asiatic countries belongs to the most bewildering phenomena and renders international efforts to improve the diet of the low-income groups there most problematical. Yet the immense impact of the biological factors upon international relations may well lead to population policies in the United States attempting to stem the declining rate of population growth within the coming decades.

Food Enough is a reliable introduction to the many wartime policies in the United States, and a thought-provoking discussion of international postwar problems connected with food and agriculture. Its popular style and interesting presentation should make it particularly attractive to those who wish to become familiar with the subject of food quickly. The absence of any recommendation of further literature on the subject for those readers whose appetite was whetted for further study, appears to be a serious omission.

KARL BRANDT.

Food Research Institute
Stanford University.

Come Over Into Macedonia. By Harold B. Allen. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1943. Pp. \$3.00.

Those who believe that the post-war rehabilitation of Europe can be accomplished along democratic lines place their confidence in the power of education. That education offers more than a ray of hope in this direction is revealed to the reader of *Come Over Into Macedonia*, by Harold B. Allen.

Come Over Into Macedonia provides an excellent background as to actual conditions likely to confront rural populations in many parts of Europe as soon as the

present conflict is over. In addition it points to some sound educational principles developed in actual practice, under trying circumstances at a time in our twentieth century when the tragic conditions in the Balkans reached their lowest ebb prior to Hitler's domination.

As a result of the war between the Turks and Greeks (1921-1922), leading up to the Smyrna disaster, Greece experienced a sudden increase in population. Common Greeks and Armenians made up the majority.

Through the succession of wars they had become as "disadvantaged" a body of humanity as the world had ever seen. This historical account of educational efforts to solve their problems is interesting because it points a background for the kind of pattern likely to be found in many parts of Europe when the present war is over. Millions of homeless, starving, wretched, human beings will be roaming aimlessly from country to country. The first job will be to feed them; the next will be to assist them in living like human beings.

The book is valuable because Near East Relief, under Allen's educational leadership, came into this kind of picture with little in the way of funds. Near East Relief is not an endowed foundation. It exists largely through small contributions made by persons and organizations interested in making the Near East a more habitable place. Allen was an agriculturally trained educators from the United States, familiar with all phases of agricultural education from Smith-Hughes teaching to extension work. He was not afraid to try new methods of teaching when old ones failed to work.

Unusually interesting are Mr. Allen's experiences in developing native agriculturists who could teach farmers and help them to adopt new practices. The account is not unlike that of the early development of extension work in the United States. The Near East Relief educational plan had developed four essential phases of rural adult education: The first, as in this country, was to follow better production prac-

tices; the second, a program of recreation; the third, a program of home making education—the home-economics type of program we know in this country; the fourth, a home welfare program, including nutrition, sanitation, and health. In the fourth phase the results were so outstanding that the Greek Government became interested and put up considerable funds to improve sanitation and health measures. The book shows the logical elevation of rural adult education from a basis of simple how-to-farm teaching to the how-to-live-in-the-rural-community kind of education.

Educational principles followed by Allen and his associates in developing the Macedonia program included the following:

- (1) Careful survey of the area.
- (2) Close cooperation with government policy.
- (3) Selection of a staff trained in service and carefully supervised.
- (4) Freedom from political involvement.
- (5) Demonstration methods.
- (6) Careful selection of location for demonstration work.
- (7) Cooperation of the local community.
- (8) Working on problems that faced the majority of people.
- (9) Recognition of need for relating scientific information with knowledge of local people.
- (10) Living and working closely with people.
- (11) Recognition of need to have a definite program.
- (12) Service-type activity to interest farmers in programs.
- (13) Recognition of need for working through competent local leaders.
- (14) Insistence on extension workers being able to demonstrate their theories in practice under conditions like those faced by the peasants.
- (15) Sanction and cooperation of church bodies.
- (16) Making materials used in demonstration also available to people.
- (17) Helping people to help themselves.
- (18) Assurance of continuation of program by the Greek Government after

Near East Relief effort came to an end.

- (19) Recognition of the truth that illiteracy does not always mean lack of wisdom and that the illiterate classes need help to become literate if they are to adopt modern farm production methods.
- (20) Making initial projects simple and immediately practical, and leading gradually into the more complex ones.

M. L. WILSON.

United States Department of Agriculture.

Characteristics of the American Negro.

Edited by Otto Klineberg. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. Pp. xii + 409. \$4.00.

Under the able editorship of Otto Klineberg, this symposium gives a highly useful summation of existing knowledge concerning the real and imputed characteristics of the Negro population in the United States. It is one of the monographs in the recently completed research project sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation, and directed by Gunnar Myrdal, for the study of all the more important phases of Negro life in this country.

Aside from Part I, which draws upon general literature for its materials, the volume comprises "a series of critical analyses of the findings of scientists and scholars who have concerned themselves" with the characteristics of Negroes. The various major divisions are as follows: I. "The Stereotype of the American Negro," Guy B. Johnson; II. "Tests of Negro Intelligence," Otto Klineberg; III. "Experimental Studies of Negro Personality," Otto Klineberg; IV. "Race Attitudes," Eugene Horowitz; V. "The Hybrid and the Problem of Miscegenation," Louis Wirth and Herbert Goldhamer; VI. "Mental Diseases among American Negroes: A Statistical Analysis," Benjamin Malzberg. The editor has written a brief Introduction and Conclusion, but the miscellaneous sections are largely independent of one another.

The opening chapter on stereotypes culled

from a wide range of non-fiction sources yields an interesting variety of traits attributed to Negroes by lay persons and supposedly scientific authorities, and forms an appropriate background for the chapters to follow. Since no effort was made to do a systematic sampling, however, Negro and white opinions of the race are cited somewhat indiscriminately. Dates are not given within the context of the discussion where stereotypes are quoted, and this omission completely obscures the fact that even the studied views of sociologists concerning the Negro have undergone drastic changes within the last few decades. For example, it would be manifestly unfair to quote undated the conclusions of Howard W. Odum's *Social and Mental Traits of the Negro*, which he wrote in 1910 and has long since repudiated, but the equally obsolete views of a Tulane University professor—presumably about 1905—are given along with some other undated stereotypes to show that professionals sometimes "have written with much more assurance, bias, and vehemence than the average white layman."

Although hitherto unpublished data are included here and there in all of the topical divisions, particularly in those by Horowitz and by Wirth and Goldhamer, the monograph purports to be primarily "a critical survey of the available literature in several related fields." The methods employed by Klineberg in his chapters are familiar to readers who are acquainted with his earlier work, *Race Differences*.

As a reference book, *Characteristics of the American Negro* is valuable for its comprehensive coverage and painstaking evaluation of existing research, yet its value is limited by the defects of its own virtues. Rather detailed citations and analyses are given of admittedly worthless studies, and the authors freely acknowledge their difficulty in trying to transcend the studies they attempt to integrate. They were unable to find complete agreement even in the evidence presented by physical anthropologists, and the defects and uncertainties in the evidence concerning mental and social

characteristics are so numerous that the careful student will conclude that no final judgment may yet be rendered.

This critical survey reveals the complexity of the problems involved in arriving at the characteristics of any "racial" group, and shows that few investigators have been able to get the relevant variables under control in their inquiries. The old and thus far futile heredity vs. environment issue appears again and again. Extreme hereditist views are successfully disposed of, but some of the evaluations and conclusions arrived at by the collaborators on this volume warrant the opinion that they have occasionally slipped into an environmentalist bias. Numerous instances of this latter tendency might be given, but one quotation (from Klineberg's Conclusion, pp. 400-401) will suffice here:

There is no proof that the groups [whites and Negroes] are inherently different, but there is also no complete demonstration that the groups are entirely alike. If other methods were available, differences might conceivably be demonstrated (*although this is unlikely*). In the absence of such methods it is legitimate to conclude that in all probability inherent intellectual differences between Negroes and whites do not exist. (Reviewer's italics.)

The italicized portion of the above quotation is obviously a *non sequitur*, and is therefore inadmissible as a scientific conclusion. Contemporary social scientists have performed an invaluable service in counteracting false biological dogmas of racism, and should continue their emphatic insistence upon the importance of social factors, but their environmental frame of reference in no way impels them into a premature negation of the possible existence of other factors.

LOGAN WILSON.

University of Kentucky.

Gauging Public Opinion. By Hadley Cantril and Research Associates in the Office of Public Opinion Research, Princeton University. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1944. Pp. xiv + 318. \$3.75.

The publisher's statement on its jacket claims this book is "the first systematic examination of the . . . new methods of surveying public opinion." However, it is neither a systematic, nor the first, examination of this field. It is, rather, what Cantril's preface claims it to be: A one-volume collection of miscellaneous studies made by the Office of Public Opinion Research to give "some idea of the serious problems encountered in every phase of the polling operation." The reader, therefore, should not be disappointed if he fails to find in it a systematic review, analysis, and critique of the extensive literature on public opinion analysis and such closely related fields as market research and attitude measurement.

The seventeen chapters and seven appendices were prepared by ten persons, as many as five of whom shared in writing individual chapters. The problem areas dealt with are: The formulation of questions, the interviewing situation, sampling, and the determinants of opinion. A chapter on "The Measurement of Civilian Morale" is presented to illustrate all phases of the polling technique by means of a specific problem. Technical methodological and bibliographical appendices are included. Adding to the unity of this work are the facts that all but one of the ten persons who share in the authorship are, or have been at some time, associated with the Princeton University O.P.O.R., the period covered is compact—mainly the three war years, 1940-42,—and most of the content of the attitude and opinion questions used in the various analyses has some bearing on the war.

A brief evaluation of this book is difficult. Some of the chapters, not too involved, should be both interesting and informative to the general reader. Others are probably of interest only to the polling technician. At some points the casual reader may become bored with the details. The critical technical reader may find too many points with which he disagrees to be entirely pleased. He may question the definitions of some concepts, the logic employed,

points of view taken, emphases and omissions. He will definitely object to errata, such as the following: Table 8 and Fig. 1 fail to check in detail (pp. 26-7); figures given in Table 42 do not check with those of the 1940 Census (p. 145); the titles of Figs. 29 and 30 appear to be transposed (pp. 224-5); the percentage of respondents reported "against peace on present basis" is 17 in Table 80 (p. 238) and 22 in Fig. 33 (p. 249); and the terrific shift of opinion caused mainly by Pearl Harbor (an increase of those "against peace on present basis" from 17-22 per cent on Nov. 19, to 87 per cent by Dec. 18, 1941) is completely obscured because the positions of the "yes" and "no" responses are transposed in Fig. 33.

In spite of the reviewer's criticisms, he believes the book will be welcomed by all who are interested in the problems with which it deals. The various studies it contains call attention sharply to some of the difficult problems that are inherent in public opinion research, thus throwing new light on the limitations and the true potentialities of this field of investigation.

EDGAR A. SCHULER.

United States Department of Agriculture.

The University and the Modern World. By Arnold S. Nash. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. xxiv + 312. \$2.50.

The thesis which Mr. Nash sets forth in this weighty little volume is that modern science has been kidding itself with its assumption of objectivity. There is no purely objective approach to knowledge, he says. On the contrary, the very method of the approach which one chooses in itself presupposes certain basic assumptions (See p. 268).

Of interest to sociologists is his insistence that the social sciences in particular are non-objective (See p. 229).

More fundamentally Mr. Nash asserts that this self-deceiving addition to objective facts has meant that scholarship has flooded the world with a mass of data and yet given to mankind no compass with

which to chart its way. Because of this, room has been left for men with an ill-advised devotion to compasses and a scorn for data to subvert the processes of scientific learning to their own ends. The Fascists, he says, have been quick to fill in the gap. Because of the very slant and direction which they have given to science they have gained power (See p. 152). Like Nazism, Marxism maintains that knowledge must serve a social purpose and that knowledge is socially conditioned. (See p. 190).

Mr. Nash holds that the whole development of modern science has been largely due to the revolutionary Protestant attitude toward the world. It was Protestantism which unshackled earlier scholars and gave them the freedom to inquire. But it has allowed them to become so enamoured of freedom as to require of modern science no accounting of its purposes and goals. It is time, he says, for the Christian-Jewish religions to insist upon some ethnical orientation of the collection made by science. (See p. 260).

One must confess, as one considers the obvious slant which American scholars find themselves giving to even more "abstract" facts these days, a reflection of their reaction to the racial and political theories against which we fight, that the universities seem rather belatedly to have become aware of the fact that knowledge must exist for something other than itself alone. Mr. Nash has undoubtedly put his finger upon a weak spot in our educational world. The recent (May 12-14) Princeton conference on religion and public education indicates that others are thinking along similar lines. Certainly faculty members of deep religious convictions have often faced the problem of the effect of their scientific teaching upon the religious and ethical life of their students. It is true also that the religious convictions or lack of them which a faculty member possesses escape from him to his students with or without his will.

And yet the proposal that colleges and universities should become open propagandists is quite foreign to our traditional

ways of academic thought. The reader wishes that Mr. Nash had expanded his little book, (it contains but 312 small pages) to indicate more completely what he means by a religious "speculum mentis" that may oppose the Fascist and Marxist philosophy.

The book is fully annotated, brings together quotations from eminent writers in a wide variety of fields, and is thoroughly a bit of scholarship. Provocative, it is well worth the reading.

WILLIAM G. MATHER.

De Pauw University.

The Decline of a Cotton Textile City. By Seymour Louis Wolfbein. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. 179. \$2.50.

This book is an economic case study of New Bedford, Massachusetts, which has been mainly dependent for more than a half century upon cotton textiles. It will be of interest to rural sociologists who are concerned with problems of industrialization and could be read to advantage by planning officials, industrialists, labor unions, and chambers of commerce who seek to attract new industries or hold established ones.

New Bedford was formerly the largest whaling center in the United States. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the city turned to textiles coincident with the decline in the whaling industry. Prosperous conditions were prevalent until 1920 although war adjustments which led to production of coarser goods exposed New Bedford to competition from the South and laid the groundwork for depression. During the 1930's, the city lost almost two-thirds of its cotton textile mills.

This study analyses the causes and results of New Bedford's decline up to 1940 and the attempts made by the city to establish a new basis for its livelihood. The author bases his study upon the returns from the WPA Survey of Employment and Unemployment in New Bedford conducted in May, 1939, and upon an analysis of the

cotton textile industry, especially those factors which influenced the shift of local textile plants to the South. The most important factor affecting relocation is found to be a differential labor cost in favor of the southern producers although a local system of family control through interlocking directorates tended toward traditionalism and unprogressive management. High dividends during prosperous years made no adequate allowance for depreciation, and failure to modernize plants was another important element in the failure to meet southern competition.

The importance of basic economic factors in affecting industrial location is emphasized throughout. Tax policies, modification of social legislation, bonuses, and low wages failed to retain the less efficient textile plants or to attract new industries sufficient to employ more than a small fraction of the displaced textile workers in spite of concerted and apparently well organized efforts. Those textile plants which remained were the most efficient and they produced fine goods, for which proximity to the New York style center was important.

The concise logical presentation in this book adds greatly to its value as a reference. Similar studies of other centers are needed to test certain of the conclusions which may be of general application.

ALLEN D. EDWARDS.

Clemson College.

13 Against the Odds. By Edwin R. Embree. New York: Viking Press, 1944. Pp. 261. \$2.75.

In writing this book, Mr. Embree had the ingenious idea of asking several hundred white and colored persons who are well acquainted with the Negro group to name the most outstanding contemporary Negro Americans. The top ranking thirteen names—one for each million Negroes—are the individual subjects of the biographical chapters in *13 Against the Odds*. Those Negroes whose successful struggles to eminence are vividly recounted are as follows: Mary M. Bethune, Richard Wright, Charles S. Johnson, Walter White, George Wash-

ington Carver, Langston Hughes, Marian Anderson, W. E. B. Du Bois, Mordecai W. Johnson, William G. Still, A. Philip Randolph, Joe Louis, and Paul Robeson. The voters in the poll were allowed to use their own standards of greatness, and there are unquestionably some Negroes who are more widely known (e.g., Cab Calloway, Bill Robinson, and "Rochester") and others who are perhaps more meritorious than some of those listed above, but most readers will agree with Mr. Embree that these "thirteen persons stand out as at least representative of highest distinction among Brown Americans today."

President of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, and long an intimate student of Negro life, the author knows all of his subjects personally and has told their life stories in an understanding but not uncritical manner. His sketches combine sociological insight and literary skill, and the volume has the utility of a formal treatise along with the readability of a good novel.

This book belongs on the required reading shelf for all courses in race relations. In this connection, the reviewer wonders how many college students of sociology (or professors, for that matter) are acquainted with the accomplishments of as many as half a dozen eminent Negroes. While sociologists are pointing out the depressed condition of the many colored Americans in our midst, they might very profitably give more attention to the unusual achievements of the few who in spite of obstacles have made their marks. This latter procedure should help to dispel the myth of the biological and cultural inferiority of the colored man.

LOGAN WILSON.

University of Kentucky.

The Populist Movement in the United States. By Anna Rochester. New York: International Publishers, 1943. Pp. 128. \$1.00.

This little book is an interesting story of the many efforts made by exploited classes to defend themselves against the aggressive tyrannical practices of the mon-

opoly capitalists. Miss Rochester gives brief but lucid accounts of the organized attempts of farmers to improve their economic and social status through such organizations as the National Grange, Farmers' Clubs, National Independent (Greenback) Party, Anti-Monopoly Party, National Farmers' Alliance, Settlers' Protective Association, Farmers' Union of Louisiana, The Agricultural Wheel, Colored Farmers' National Alliance and Cooperative Union, Farmers' National Congress, Peoples' Anti-Bourbon Party, Virginia Farmers' Assembly, Farmers' Mutual Benefit Association, and Michigan Patrons of Industry. All were forerunners, to some extent, of the Peoples Party, or of the Populist Party as it was commonly called. The National Union Labor Party, composed of farmers and workers, Knights of Labor, and other organized groupings of laborers, or of both farmers and laborers, likewise were forerunners of the Peoples' Party. Miss Rochester points out how each organization is related to the economic condition which furnishes the cause for its rise and growth.

The first six chapters pertain to events that led to the holding of the first Populist Party convention in 1892. The next five chapters describe the platforms and some of the leaders in the movement, while the final three chapters portray the Party's losses by fusion. In the field of "Agrarianism" and "Third Parties" this study is an excellent supplement to such works as Bizzell's *The Green Rising*, Eastman's *These Changing Times*, Hicks's *The Populist Revolt*, Buck's *The Granger Movement* and his *Agrarian Crusade* and Haynes's *Third Party Movements*.

JOHN F. THADEN.

Michigan State College.

Pills, Petticoats and Plows: The Southern Country Store. By Thomas D. Clark. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1944. Pp. 359. \$3.50.

The country store in the South flourished most in its institutional aspects after the end of slavery and before the coming of

small-town banks, Rural Free Delivery of mail, and modern means of transportation. In other words it had an era and a passing somewhat as did the cowboy of the range country. Professor Clark has written a social history of the Southern country store in its flourishing period from 1865 to 1915. He has presented a vivid story, which incidentally is aptly illustrated. In gathering material for it, he roamed over the South and brought home baggage trailers of store records and other sources, including choice items of nineteenth-century merchandise. In addition to finding this rich material, he caught the very spirit and odor of the country store. As a result, his book is a treat to read. It is a human document. It will evoke nostalgic feelings in many, as it did in this reviewer, who grew up in a crossroads store.

This composite picture emphasizes the role of leader and general adviser of the rural merchant, whose place in the community was more fixed and permanent than that of teacher or preacher. A graphic chapter on the sale of patent medicines has the suggestive title, "The Halt, the Lame and the Bilious." Other chapters include "Social Correspondents," "Admiral Dewey Corsets and Bonton Petticoats," "Stove or Shady Porch," "Mr. McGuffey at the Crossroads," and "A Little Bit of Santa Claus." Attention is given to checkers, political and religious discussions, drummers' stories, country postoffices, and the coming of the rural telephone. The central theme concerns the role of the store in the whole economy of the rural community.

The sociologist will find here no scientific analysis of any actual community or of the organic processes of community life. But he will find an abundance of social history set forth with literary skill.

H. CLARENCE NIXON.

Vanderbilt University.

McCarthy of Wisconsin. By Edward A. Fitzpatrick. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. x + 316. \$3.50.

E. A. Fitzpatrick has proven himself an excellent biographer of a man whose name

is seldom mentioned today but whose contribution to a state is universally recognized. Under the influence of Colonel Fitzpatrick the reader lives once again "those glorious days of progressiveness in Wisconsin"—the decade preceding 1915—the days of Ross, Commons, Ely, Hutchins, LaFollette, and Dr. Charles McCarthy, as he was commonly known. The influence, not of a single man, but of a man working with and through a group of other men is the theme of this book.

One must be careful not to confuse McCarthy with a party. His concern was not with parties but with what parties stand for, and in one presidential year he helped representatives from four parties draft their platforms, including Woodrow Wilson and Theodore Roosevelt. He shared in Wisconsin progressivism, but felt no intimacy for its patron saint, Robert Marion LaFollette. Writing of LaFollette he said, "LaFollette has been a great good in the country. Personally, I have had very little to do with him. His arbitrary temperament has made it impossible for me to work personally with him all these years. I never go near him." Although it was LaFollette who, as governor, created the reference library, McCarthy always worked with him through an intermediary. Strangely too, when the library was under fire in 1915 and the progressives joined in the fight against it, the conservatives and a conservative governor, Emanuel L. Philipp, finally saved the day. Criticizing McCarthy at first for being a "socialist," Governor Philipp later became his firm friend.

McCarthy's great contribution was, of course, the Legislative Reference Library. This development, popularly known as the "bill factory," became a model for the country. However, McCarthy was always concerned about the welfare of the common people of Wisconsin. He was concerned with making education, including education at the State University, serve the whole state and the people of the state. He was therefore identified with the development of the University Extension Division, farm organizations and cooperatives, and with

the continuation schools. Of special interest to rural sociologists was his concern with the welfare of the farmer. One of McCarthy's closest friendships—an association between a modest Irish-American and a distinguished Irish-statesman—was with Sir Horace Plankett. From Sir Horace he borrowed the theme "better farming, better business, better living." Through Wisconsin agricultural leaders—Dean Henry, Dr. Babcock, Senator Culbertson, Miles Riley, H. C. Taylor, K. L. Hatch, Charles G. Holman, and others, he attempted to put it in practice.

One is impressed throughout this biography by the close association of McCarthy with many of the distinguished leaders of the period that followed his death in 1921. In fact, many of these people received some training for their leadership in work with McCarthy.

A. F. WILEDEN.

University of Wisconsin.

Consumer Problems in Wartime. Edited by Kenneth Damaron. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944. Pp. 655. \$3.75.

Twenty-five educators, each a leader in his field, collaborated in this pioneer effort of integrating specialized areas of consumer education, and in analyzing consumer problems arising in wartime. In the fields of Economics, Marketing, and Home Economics these specialists have presented basic information needed by consumers "to accomplish a shift in the final end or purpose of consumption—from the peacetime purpose of satisfying the wants of individuals to the wartime goal of making consumption a means of winning the war."

The consumer in a wartime economy is viewed as an individual with personal problems, and as a citizen with rights and responsibilities geared to the war effort. The fundamentals of economics of consumption, the marketing system, and the role of the government in protecting consumers from inflation and shortages of essential goods are discussed in terms that are understandable to laymen who may be un-

versed in academic phraseology. Sources of information have been listed as an aid in assembling educational materials adapted to various educational levels. Study courses are outlined for consumer groups; and supplementary readings are suggested for the reader who desires more technical knowledge. The latter half of the book is devoted to developing consumer skills in knowing where, when, how much, and what to buy of specific goods that are essential to the maintenance of family health, morale, and efficiency.

Laymen, educators, and volunteer leaders may use the book, *Consumer Problems in Wartime*, as a timely reference to keep themselves informed on changing conditions. Students of consumer problems will appreciate the inclusive scope of the book as a text which integrates specialized areas of economics, management, and buymanship. Teachers of subject matter may wish to recheck the content of their courses against this over-all picture, and their insight to human relationships in the light of the multiple problems currently facing all consumers.

HELEN K. STALEY.

Cornell University.

Mental Illness: A Guide for the Family. By

Edith M. Stern with the collaboration of Samuel W. Hamilton, M.D. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1942. Pp. xvii + 134. \$1.00.

Eighteen chapters answer in simple, clear, direct fashion the questions which sweep through every family facing the problem of the hospitalization of a relative. With amazing artistry Mrs. Stern has managed to develop an attitude about mental illness without once warning the reader that this is occurring as he goes through the day by day items that are so little, so intimate—so important. There is greatness in simplicity that is honest and humble—and this little book (now in its fifth printing) has it.

Each one of us who walks along a little way with those who are in trouble is constantly amazed at the bafflement that is

theirs over some new experience. We confidently advise to "act naturally" or to "be courteous just as you would under ordinary circumstances" without realizing that the event has twisted into grotesque shapes all of their definitions. Here is a handbook that tells what should be done and when and how—and what shouldn't.

By all means read it. It is worth your possession. It has valuable and useful data as to the different procedures in the different States. It explains various rules and regulations. You will be amazed at how frequently a friend, neighbor or client will ask precisely the question it answers.

It is rarely that one sees a knife that moves so deftly between what is useless and what is alive with sensitive dread.

JAMES S. PLANT, M.D.

Essex County Juvenile Clinic
Newark, New Jersey

The War and Mental Health in England.

By James M. Mackintosh, M.D. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1944. Pp. 91. \$.85.

Perhaps one should not describe as "delightful" a book on so grim a subject. But here is so warm and understanding a picture of the sublime and the droll in any people under great stress that the word comes often to the lips.

About half of the book (five chapters) in swift strokes gives the effect of four stages of the War upon British spirit and behavior. It tends to be anecdotal—the reader feels that another might give a quite different account. But no one would deny this author's proven expertness and sensitive understanding of mental health and mental illness. Statistics aren't here, "proof" isn't here—but there is a steadiness of hand and sureness of touch that is authentic.

The rest deals with plans for the future. It is good reading—sound—for one who is interested in what England should do in the amalgamation of its present organization for mental health, in the preparation of psychiatric social workers, in its mental hospital plans, etc. There is little that

would be applicable elsewhere—except that Dr. Mackintosh writes at that level of understanding where we are all brothers. This is especially true toward the end where he makes it so certain that the core problem is mental health rather than mental illness.

Don't turn here if you are searching for "authoritative data," "statistical trends," "what we should probably plan." But if some day you wish to be in touch for a while with a very wise person to tell you a great deal about the spirit of man under stress—well, here's a good book to read.

JAMES S. PLANT, M.D.

Essex County Juvenile Clinic
Newark, New Jersey

TVA-Democracy on the March. By David E. Lilienthal. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. Pp. xiv + 248. \$2.50.

In these days when democracy is being challenged so seriously, and when many men honestly believe that democracy is incompatible with the modern age of science and technology, a book like Lilienthal's presents a vista of challenging opportunities. Lilienthal believes devoutly in the common man and his ability to decide rightly if given the true and complete facts. He believes that it is the role of the expert, the technician, the scientist, to discover the facts, to learn and to point out their applications, to explain patiently and clearly the "why" of the problem or the remedy, and at all times not only to work closely with but even to live as neighbor with the laymen to whose account and for whose good he should turn his technical training. Lilienthal has little use for "facts for their own sake, to be encased in dull 'reports.'" He wants his technicians, and by implication technicians and scientists in general, to come up with "live facts that live people use today or will need tomorrow to help them make their decisions about industrial location, farming, education, public health."

The reviewer could seize upon any number of themes for elaboration in discussing this stimulating little book. One might comment on Lilienthal's discussions of region-

alism, or of governmental decentralization, or of the interdependence of man and natural resources (he comes close to saying there are no submarginal lands), or of the need for a unified approach by the various scientific disciplines to a common problem, or of the possibilities for effective planning, or half a dozen other points. Throughout the discussion, however, runs the central theme: democracy can operate effectively and efficiently today if only the experts and the specialists will apply their knowledge and will work patiently with the laymen. This book should be in every institutional library, and any rural sociologist, be he in teaching, research or extension, should at least skim it for points of personal application.

CARL F. REUSS.

The State College of Washington.

The Navaho Door: An Introduction to Navaho Life. By Alexander H. Leighton and Dorothea C. Leighton. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1944. Pp. 145. \$....

This book is recommended to any one who wants to get a quick description of the social structure, value systems and daily lives of the 50,000 Navajos of Arizona, New Mexico and Utah. The book is so interestingly written and so well illustrated that any one interested in human culture will find it difficult to lay it down. However, its greatest contribution is not the excellent down-to-earth view of Navajo life. Its real contribution, and this is by no means small, is the practical demonstration of the crying need for the humanizing of the medical profession.

Although the Leightons worked with the Navajos, bringing to bear their medical and psychiatric training, they saw the Indians and white doctors and the interrelations of these two groups or cults through the eyes of cultural anthropologists. They learned about the 35 ceremonials, most of which concern disease and are so exacting that apprentice Singers and Curers must spend months of diligent study and pay about \$500 to the teaching practitioner in order

to learn them. In this book the authors have tried to advise the white doctors how they can make themselves more effective among the Indians by building on that which is Indian.

The white doctors are advised to educate while curing. They are told that their efficient ways fail to give the Indian the self-assurance which the ceremonial gives him and appear to the Indian to be much less sensible. The authors show how this failing could be remedied by giving examples of how a doctor should talk to a patient explaining the cures in terms of the Indian's experience and religion. Perhaps the high light of the book is the explanation of why Navajos resist being hospitalized. The principal diseases of the Navajo and their treatment by the Indian Service are described. Several case studies of Navajos are included.

CHARLES P. LOOMIS.

United States Department of Agriculture.

Scientific Method and the Conditions of Social Intelligence. By Helen Louise Whiteway. St. John's, Newfoundland: Trade Printers and Publishers, Ltd., 1943. Pp. x + 188. \$2.00.

Miss Whiteway argues that social scientists cannot use the method of the physical scientists exclusively without neglecting phenomena that are of primary significance both to theoretical and applied social science, in particular, purposive and "creative" behavior occurring in a value context. It is an argument which only the most behavioristic and ardent devotees of the exact sciences will debate. It is also an argument which throws a heavy responsibility on social scientists to develop and refine their own method and techniques. Miss Whiteway, however, does not go into the methodological problems of the case method, the interview and the life history, nor does she discuss the mutual dependence of "quantitative" and "qualitative" techniques. The frame of reference and approach of dynamic social psychology, so appropriate to the study of purposive behavior, is also neglected. At no point is

the discussion related to particular monographs or research problems. This seems unfortunate since, in the opinion of the reviewer, we have had already too many arguments about method in general, and too few studies of method in particular, such as the Social Science Research Council has sponsored in recent years.

The author is at her best in a reasonably adequate and brief account of "The Development of Scientific Method in the Physical Sciences," Chapter III. The rest of the book—five chapters entitled "Towards Method in Society," "Scientific Method and Social Problems," "Social Method in Its Own Right," "Interim Summary," and "The Problem of Method in Education"—is poorly organized, repetitious, and in places incoherent. Talcott Parsons, Weber, Durkheim, Dewey, Cooley, A. N. Whitehead, Wesley Mitchell, various educators and literati are quoted frequently.

N. J. DEMERATH.

National Housing Agency.

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work. Selected Papers Seventieth Annual Meeting War Regional Conferences. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. x + 491. \$5.00.

This book contains forty-four papers presented at three regional meetings of the National Conference of Social Work for 1943 and a listing of many others given at these conferences, but not published.

Rural sociologists will be disappointed in the dearth of papers on social work among rural people. Only one paper in the forty-four papers has a rural title, to wit: "Community Organization in Rural Child Welfare Services" by Benjamin E. Youngdahl. In the large number of papers listed in the index, papers on rural social work are conspicuous by their absence. Section 21 in the index has as its subject the social and economic problems of depressed areas. The two papers in that section, one by P. G. Beck of the FSA and one by Erwin L. Shannon of the Department of Sociology,

Ohio State University, are of interest to the rural sociologist.

In the paper "Community Organization in Rural Child Welfare Services" Youngdahl emphasizes the fact that the mechanics of rural social work vary from those in the city because of major differences in culture and social attitudes. There is much waste in rural child welfare services because of duplication, confusion, controversy and the lack of an integrated welfare philosophy. This can be charged to local communities, state agencies, and federal agencies. A workable program would demand, first, a careful analysis of the needs; second, analysis of the resources for meeting these needs; third, a well integrated plan; fourth, education; and fifth, execution of the plan through widespread participation, publicity and reports.

Rural sociologists might profitably read the entire report for viewpoints and data for their science. Such published papers as concern the mobilization of manpower, the impact of war marriage relationships, social problems created by the development of war industry, social security, "a safety net" and progress in interracial relationships especially might be read with interest and profit.

DANIEL RUSSELL,

Texas A. and M. College.

Teachers for Our Times. Preliminary Report of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1944. Pp. I + 178. \$2.00.

This Commission, established in 1938, presents its purposes in a clear, concise consideration of the social significance of the profession of teaching, and the qualities needed by teachers for the guidance of the youth in our American way of living. The responsibility of training teachers is set forth as the joint responsibility of the college or university offering training, and the laity. A trend is noted for teachers to remain in the profession longer, thus indicating its stability and efficiency. Emphasis is placed on changes in society and on

changes needed in the education because of the present war. A timely admonition is offered to the schools that they must meet the needs of the community as well as contribute to the solution of those problems of a changing society. A thorough understanding of, and some means of judging excellence in a teacher is jointly a part of teacher education and of the community employing the teacher if needs are to be met in the future. This report implies curricular and organizational rearrangements for colleges and universities and points to their basic importance for the fostering of continuous professional development.

SUSANNE THOMPSON.

Louisiana State University.

Economic Factors in Michigan Delinquency.

By Paul Wiers. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. x + 54. \$1.00.

This little book describes methods and tentative conclusions of a study aimed at an analysis of juvenile delinquency over an entire state. Unfortunately, the report is handicapped by data that are from 7 to 14 years out of date and readers may question whether the conclusions will hold under war conditions.

Sociologists with a statistical bent will probably be more interested in Weir's methodology than in his supporting evidence and conclusions. Other individuals may be interested and perhaps disturbed by his more sociological data which indicate that the schools and churches are neutral factors in the rates of juvenile delinquency. Likewise, anti-urbanites may shake their heads at his conclusion that, "... the biggest cities have proportionately no greater problems on their hands than the smaller cities."

Perhaps the most pertinent statement for or against the study is that made by its editor: "Although largely negative, these inferences do have a positive value: they should help to remove some of the misconceptions which burden popular discussions of this subject. Moreover, taken as leads for more intensive studies, they might

even contribute to a better understanding of juvenile delinquency itself, not merely as an urban phenomenon but as an index of social inefficiencies throughout a state. To such purposes the present study makes its contribution."

ED LOSEY.

Division of Farm Population
and Rural Welfare.

Miracles Ahead! Better Living in the Post-war World. By Norman V. Carlisle and Frank B. Latham. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. xi + 288. \$2.75.

The miracles in agriculture, foretold in one chapter, will be chiefly chemurgic, and they will involve nonfood uses for the farmers' produce. Textile fiber from peanuts and insulation boards from their shells; industrial alcohol from sweet potatoes; home grown waxy corn to replace tapioca raised in the Indies; synthetic fiber from the casein in skim milk; the infinite and the infinitesimal from soybeans; everything from soap to linoleum from the castor bean; fountain pens, cotton leather, fire hose, and highway reenforcement meshing from cotton; new industrial uses by the score for corn, oats, wood, pine gum; all these in addition to hydroponics! The book is a breezy exposition in 16 chapters, of "what is already on the drawing boards" but "... we are going to leave it to the reader to decide *when*" the miracles will occur. This is the kind of book that a sociologist may read occasionally with a deliberate and discretely sinful intent. There is no hangover, and the return to objective reflection is accompanied by feelings of relief and satisfaction.

HOWARD W. BEERS.

University of Kentucky.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

The Theory of Economic Progress. By C. E. Ayres. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1944. Pp. ix + 317. \$3.00.

The Way Our People Lived: An Intimate American History. By W. E. Woodward. New York: E. P. Dutton, Inc., 1944. Pp. 402 + 32 pages of pictures. \$3.95.

Electrical Technology and the Public Interest. By Frank Joseph Kottke. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 199. Paper, \$2.50; Cloth, \$3.00.

War and Postwar Adjustment Policies. By Bernard M. Baruch and John M. Hancock. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 131. Paper, \$1.00; Cloth, \$2.00.

The Closed Shop. By Reverend Jerome L. Toner. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. viii + 205. Paper, \$2.75; Cloth, \$3.25.

Conservation in the United States. By A. F. Gustafson, C. H. Guise, W. J. Hamilton, Jr., H. Ries. Ithaca, New York: Comstock Publishing Company, Inc., 1944. Pp. xi + 477. \$4.00.

Man's Food: Its Rhyme or Reason. By Mark Graubard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943. Pp. x + 213. \$2.50.

The Food Front in World War I. By Maxey Robson Dickson. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 194. Paper, \$2.50; Cloth, \$3.25.

Problems of Post-War Reconstruction. Edited by Henry P. Jordan. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. xix + 292. Paper, \$2.75; Cloth, \$3.25.

The Tennessee Valley Authority: A Study in Public Administration. By C. Herman Pritchett. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1943. Pp. xiii + 333. \$3.50.

Everyday Living. By Jessie W. Harris, Mildred T. Tate, Ida A. Anders. Edited by Alice F. Blood. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1944. Pp. ix + 456. \$1.88.

NEWS NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Edited by Robert A. Polson

RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Ballots of the election of officers for 1945 will be mailed to the membership of the Society about September 30, 1944. All ballots should be returned to the Secretary-Treasurer by October 31 in a sealed envelope bearing the signature of the member.

Tentative Program

RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

December 29-30, 1944

Hotel Stevens, Chicago, Illinois

Friday, December 29

10-12 a.m.

Report of the Committee on Recruitment and Training, E. deS. Brunner, Chairman.

Discussion.

12-12:15

Brief business meeting.

1-3 p.m.

Looking Ahead in Rural Sociology

Problems and Plans in The Field of Research—A. R. Mangus.

Discussion.

Problems and Plans in The Field of Extension—D. E. Lindstrom.

Discussion.

Problems and Plans in The Field of Teaching—O. D. Duncan.

Discussion.

8 p.m.

Joint Session for Presidential Addresses.

Saturday, December 30

10-12 a.m.

Three or four papers reporting current research by young sociologists who have not previously appeared before the society.

1-2 p.m.

Business meeting.

2-4 p.m.

Federal-State Relations in Rural Sociology.

Discussion.

PROPOSED CHANGES IN BY-LAWS

RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Article I, Section 2

In the last sentence omit the words "and fifty cents" making the sentence read—Students of educational institutions may become members upon the payment of \$2.00 per annum.

Article III, Section 2

The last sentence now reads "The Board of Editors shall elect from among its members an editor and chief, and shall appoint a managing editor to have charge of the management of the Journal." It is proposed to change this sentence to read—The Board of Editors shall appoint an editor and chief, and a managing editor who will have charge of the editorial and business management of the Journal.

Article III, Section 3

Insert "active" before the word members, making the sentence read—\$2.50 of the dues of each active member shall be paid to the managing editor for subscription to Rural Sociology (student memberships are \$2.00, all of which goes to the managing editor of the Journal for subscription to Rural Sociology).

The Constitution and By-Laws of the Rural Sociological Society was printed in Volume VI, No. 4, December 1941 issue of *Rural Sociology*. Reprint of Constitution and By-Laws may be obtained by writing the Secretary-Treasurer, 313 Warren Hall, Ithaca, New York.

Addition to Article V or as Section 3, Article II, By-Laws

A representative of the Rural Sociological Society on the Executive Committee of American Sociological Society shall be elected every 3rd year in the same manner as the officers of the Society.

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY: Dr. Negley K. Teeters, associate professor of sociology at

Temple University, has been granted a leave of absence to make a four-month study of the prison systems of several Central and South American countries. Dr. Teeters will inspect the prison systems of Panama, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Chile and Brazil. He was formerly a consultant for the prison industries division of the War Production Board and made a survey of the Federal prisons in 1942 for the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

GEORGE HENRY VON TUNGELN
1883-1944

George Henry Von Tungeln, professor of sociology at Iowa State College, passed away very suddenly and unexpectedly on Thursday, April 6, 1944, following a brief illness. He was 61 years of age and had been a professor of sociology at Iowa State College for 31 years.

Born and reared on a farm near Galconda, Illinois, Dr. Von Tungeln received his Ph.B. from Central Wesleyan College, Warrenton, Missouri, in 1909, and his M.A. from Northwestern University in 1910. He taught rural school in Illinois for two years and was instructor in English at Michigan State Agricultural College, 1909-10. He studied at Harvard University in 1910 and served as an Austin Teaching Fellow 1911-12 and as a Robert Treat Paine Fellow 1912-13. He received his Ph.D. from Harvard University in 1926.

Dr. Von Tungeln was one of the early pioneers in rural sociology. He came to Iowa State College as an assistant professor in the fall of 1913 and initiated the college work in sociology. He became associate professor in 1914 and professor in 1919. His first courses included one in rural sociology and another in applied sociology. He started the first formal research project in rural sociology at Iowa State College in 1915.

Dr. Von Tungeln has been closely associated with the expansion of Rural Sociology in the United States. He was a member of a committee to advise with the Secretary of Agriculture in 1919 regarding the organization of a Rural Life Study Section

in the Department of Agriculture. He also acted in an advisory capacity to the Inter-Church World Movement. In 1937 Dr. Von Tungeln was chairman of the Rural Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society. During his term he was instrumental in organizing the Rural Sociological Society. He was also a member of the committee which organized the Midwest Sociological Society.

Dr. Von Tungeln was the author of many bulletins and pamphlets and was currently revising a manuscript on leadership. He was a member of a number of professional groups, among them the American Economic Association, the American Sociological Society, the Rural Sociological Society, the Midwest Sociological Society, the American Country Life Association, the American Association for Labor Legislation, the American Association for Agricultural Legislation, and the Iowa State Conference of Social Work. He was a life fellow of the Royal Economic Society.

At the time of his death, Dr. Von Tungeln was completing his thirty-first year of active service at Iowa State College. During those years he was an outstanding advocate of science with practice. Dr. Von Tungeln was highly respected by all who knew him. By his passing rural sociology has lost a pioneer protagonist and his colleagues a faithful friend.

NORTH CAROLINA STATE COLLEGE: Dr. C. H. Hamilton, Head of the Department of Rural Sociology, was recently appointed secretary of the Governor's Committee on Medical Care and Hospital Services for Rural People.

The North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station has recently published two bulletins by members of the Rural Sociology Department: (1) *1944 Farm Labor Problems: Farm Manpower Situation in North Carolina*, AES number 344; and *Rural Population Problems in North Carolina: I. Population Growth 1790-1940*, AES, Tech. Bul. number 76.

A study of Medical Care and Health Services Among Rural People in North

Carolina is being made by the Department of Rural Sociology.

Lt. (jg) Jay T. Wakely, a former graduate student in Rural Sociology, is now stationed in Australia.

F. M. Henderson, a former graduate in Rural Sociology, is now with the Office of Price Administration, Raleigh.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION: The 1944 annual meeting of the American Country Life Association was held in Chicago in April in conjunction with the American Country Life Conference.

Approximately 150 persons representing more than 70 states and national organizations and agencies were in attendance at the business meeting held on Wednesday evening. The following directors were elected:

Paul V. Maris, U. S. Department of Agriculture; Loleta D. Fyan, American Library Association; Emerson Hynes, Catholic Rural Life Conference; Roger Corbett, American Farm Bureau Federation; John H. Davis, National Council of Farmers Cooperatives; Ernest L. Anthony, Dean, College of Agriculture, East Lansing, Michigan; F. D. Patterson, President, Negro Land-Grant College Presidents Association; E. E. Beck, National County Agents Association, and Carroll P. Streeter, Farm Journal and Farmers Wife.

The following were elected as officers: David E. Lindstrom, President; Paul V. Maris, Vice-President; Loleta D. Fyan, Recording Secretary; O. F. Hall, Executive Secretary; C. Morton Hanna, Treasurer; Nat T. Frame, Field Representative.

The next conference will be held in March, 1945, in Chicago on the general theme—the adjustment of population to land.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY: Professor Carle C. Zimmerman has returned from three years in the Army Air Forces and has begun giving his regular courses at the University. These are the Family, Rural Sociology, Regional Sociology, and Social Change. Professor Zimmerman is on the inactive re-

serve as an officer in the AUS until six months after the duration.

IOWA STATE COLLEGE: William J. Tudor, who has been on leave from staff duty at the college and acting as Agricultural Extension Director in Monona County for the past year, returned to active staff duty in June. During the coming year he will be on half time teaching and research appointment.

Dr. Glenn A. Bakkum, head of sociology at Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, is visiting professor of sociology at Iowa State College for the summer term.

Ann Klein Ross, B.S. Iowa State College 1943, and Bertha Whitson, B.A. Simpson College, 1942, each have received fellowships in rural sociology beginning September 15. W. Milan Davis, M.S. in sociology at Iowa State College, 1934, has an appointment as senior research fellow in rural sociology beginning September 15. Mr. Davis is now principal of the Okolona Industrial School at Okolona, Mississippi.

C. Arnold Anderson, who was on leave from Iowa State College as visiting professor at Harvard University spring quarter, is continuing there for the summer.

Bryce Ryan, who has a year's leave of absence from Iowa State College, has taken a position in the Division of Program Analysis and Development, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, D. C.

MIDWEST SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY: The Midwest Sociological Society held its annual meeting at the Kirkwood Hotel in Des Moines, Iowa, on April 21, 22 and 23. The program took the form of forum and round table discussions on The Sociologist in the Postwar Period, Social Security, and the Family in Wartime. Officers elected for the new year were:

Dr. David E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, President; Prof. C. T. Philblad, University of Missouri, Vice-President; J. Howell Atwood, Knox College, Galesburg, Secretary-Treasurer; Miss Marguerite Reuss, Editor of the Midwest Sociologist; Dr. E. B. Reuter, University of Iowa, Chairman of the Research Committee.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI: Miss Zetta Bankert and Miss Margaret Bright have been appointed instructors and Mr. Gerard Schultz has been appointed research assistant in the Department of Rural Sociology. Miss Bankert will do research in the area of rural health and medical service. Miss Bright will do research in rural social trends. Mr. Schultz will do part-time research on the impact of the war on the rural community.

Dr. Harold Kaufman is now preparing a series of three research bulletins based upon a sickness and medical service survey in five counties.

Mr. Warren W. Morse, for two years research assistant in the Department, resigned effective July 1, 1944.

Mrs. Iola Mier Shrout, co-author of Research Bulletin 369, Family Health Practices in Dallas County, Missouri, returned from Red Cross work last spring in time to receive her M.A. degree at the June commencement. She became field secretary for the Nebraska Health Planning Committee, Aug. 1st.

Late in 1943, Dr. C. E. Lively prepared a special report reviewing the rural health and medical service situation in Missouri. The report was prepared for administrative use and was not published. In response to requests to see the paper, however, a small edition has been mimeographed and is now being distributed.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA: Lowry Nelson has been appointed a member of the Agricultural Committee of the National Planning Association.

CENTRAL VALLEY PROJECT STUDIES: A research program to study population problems of the Central Valley in California has been organized as a part of the investigations being made preliminary to the planning of an extensive irrigation development by the Bureau of Reclamation. Several research memorandums have been published and others are underway. They are being mimeographed and distributed by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S.

Department of Agriculture, Berkeley, California. The population committee includes the following:

Marion Clawson (chairman), Bureau of Agricultural Economics; Walter R. Goldschmidt (secretary), Bureau of Agricultural Economics; Charles N. Reynolds, Stanford University and Bureau of Agricultural Economics; Dorothy Thomas, University of California; V. B. Stanbery, Reemployment and Reconstruction Commission; George Howson, Bureau of Reclamation; Herbert Ormsby, California State Chamber of Commerce; Victor W. Killick, Division of Motor Vehicles; Oliver P. Wheeler, Federal Reserve Bank; Paul S. Taylor, University of California; M. I. Gershenson, California Division of Labor Statistics; Marie B. Stringer, Bureau of Vital Statistics; Hubert McHenry, California Taxpayers Association; Stillman Drake, War Production Board; George Roche, War Manpower Commission; Eschscholtzia Lucia, University of California.

OKLAHOMA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE: William H. Sewell, Professor of Sociology and Rural Life, has received an appointment as Lieutenant (jg) in the United States Navy and reported for duty June 15.

William L. Kolb, Assistant Professor of Sociology, entered the Navy as an Ensign on January 1, 1944.

SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY: The Southern Sociological Society met in Atlanta, Georgia, March 31 to April 1, with 150 people registered for the meeting. The officers elected for the year 1945 are:

Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, president; H. C. Brearly, Peabody College, first vice-president; Howard E. Jensen, Duke University, second vice-president; Coyle E. Moore, Florida State College for Women, secretary-treasurer; E. T. Krueger, Vanderbilt University, representative on the Executive Committee of the American Sociological Society; and Mildred Mell, Agnes Scott College and Ira DeA.

Reid, Atlanta University, members of the Executive Committee.

The next meeting of the Society will be in Atlanta in April, 1945.

WESTERN FARM ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION:

Rural Sociologists participated in the program of the Western Farm Economics Association held June 22-29 at Los Gatos, California. The program of the section on Rural Sociology was as follows:

Chairman: Dorothy S. Thomas, Professor of Rural Sociology, University of California, Berkeley.

Rapporteur: George Sabagh, Research Assistant in Population, State Reconstruc-

tion and Reemployment Commission, Sacramento.

a. Davis McEntire, Research Director, Population Studies, Commonwealth Club, "*Racial and National Elements in the Population of California.*"

b. Paul S. Taylor, Professor of Economics, University of California, "*The Mexicans and Negroes in California.*"

c. R. W. Roskelly, Field Representative, Western Policy Committee, "*The Japanese Minority in Colorado Following Evacuation.*"

d. Morris Opler, War Relocation Authority, Manzanar, "*Resistances to Resettlement.*"

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI: Miss Zetta Bankert and Miss Margaret Bright have been appointed instructors and Mr. Gerard Schultz has been appointed research assistant in the Department of Rural Sociology. Miss Bankert will do research in the area of rural health and medical service. Miss Bright will do research in rural social trends. Mr. Schultz will do part-time research on the impact of the war on the rural community.

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c. R. W. Roskelley, Field Representative, Western Policy Committee, "*The Japanese Minority in Colorado Following Evacuation.*"

d. Morris Opler, War Relocation Authority, Manzanar, "*Resistances to Resettlement.*"

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